# The Nation.

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## The Week.

THE tariff debate in the House is now in good running order, and the supporters of the Mills bill are certainly not having the worst of it. Mr. Ford of Michigan made a speech on Friday, addressed to the farming interest, showing how oppressive and illusory is a protective tariff which compels agriculturists to pay an average tax of 47 per cent. on the dutiable goods for which their products are exchanged, while their labor is brought into competition with the cheapest and most degraded labor in the world, that of India, where the wages of agricultural labor are only six to nine cents per day. "You may pile tariffs on wheat, corn, beef, pork, and cotton mountains high," said Mr. Ford, "and it will not increase the prices of those products in this country a penny—not a farthing." This is a well-worn truism of course, but one of those that seem hardest to penetrate the bucolic mind. When you have proved to the farmer who has been nourished on Horace Greeley's *Weekly Tribune* that he is selling nine-tenths of his crops in competition with the pauper labor of India and Egypt and Russia, and that there is no help for him, he struggles in a dazed and feeble way to get a little more tariff for the remaining tenth of his products—his potatoes, flax, honey, and wool. And when he fails in this small scheme, he falls back on the comforting thought that he is building up a "home market" for his products. He has been a hundred years pursuing this will-o'-the-wisp, expecting that a time would come when the home market, which he has been so long coddling with bounties drawn from his own earnings, would take all of his wheat, corn, beef, pork, and cotton, and then voluntarily raise the prices of them.

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The speech of Mr. Russell of Massachusetts was the best that has been delivered since the opening of the debate by Mr. Mills. Mr. Russell represents a manufacturing State and a manufacturing district. Yet he tells us that not one in ten of the industries of Massachusetts is protected by the tariff, and that of all the industries in the State, the protected ones are those that pay the lowest wages to their workmen. He stated as a fact which was not denied, that all the great manufacturing centres in New England had grown up during periods of low tariffs, and that not one such has been started under a high tariff, or could be started to-day. He adverted to the Walker tariff of 1846 as the one under which the manufacturers of Massachusetts enjoyed their greatest prosperity and largest expansion. So well satisfied was Massachusetts with that experiment that she came forward in 1857 and asked for a further reduction of duties, and obtained it. The tariff was lowered 21 per cent. in that year, and her whole delegation in both houses of Congress voted for the reduction. Here the great interrupter of speeches, Mr. Milliken of Maine, chimed in: "And it produced the panic of 1857." Mr. Russell promptly corrected Mr. Milliken's chronology by showing him that the panic of 1857 came one year before the new tariff went into effect, and was about to favor him with a few words on the panic of 1873, which took place under the great anti-panic Morrill tariff that is still in force, when Mr. Farquhar of New York dexterously shunted the inquiry into another channel by asking what effect the tariff of 1857 had on the public treasury. Mr. Russell said that it had the desirable consequence of reducing the surplus, which was the aim also of the Mills bill. Mr. Farquhar had nothing more to say, and the debate went on, to the great advantage of Mr. Russell and the friends of tariff reform.

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Mr. Burrows of Michigan made his speech on the Tariff Bill in the House on Tuesday week. He began with the frank statement that the surplus was certainly $56,500,000 per year, and possibly $75,000,000, and that it must be reduced by one or the other of these sums. He then stated that the only difference between parties was as to the mode and manner of effecting the reduction. Then he affirmed it to be the duty of members of Congress to define their positions clearly, and show exactly how they would reduce the surplus. Having thus cleared the ground and excited a lively curiosity as to the particular mode favored by himself, he launched into a general defence of the great principle of protection to American industry and a general denunciation of the Mills bill, filling eight pages of the *Congressional Record*, ending with a lot of quotations from English newspapers commenting on the President's message, but he never told what his plan for reducing the surplus would be. In a general and very guarded way he was in favor of reducing the internal revenue, and he mentioned the tobacco tax as one suitable to be removed. Beyond that he did not advance. He did not say whiskey once, nor even beer. Mr. Burrows's taciturnity on the particulars of internal-revenue reduction points out the dilemma of the Republican party. The surplus must be reduced, but not by disturbing the tariff. It may be reduced by putting whiskey and beer on the free list, but not by our initiative. How Not To Do It is the great question of the day, the real Republican issue of the coming campaign.

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In the appointment of Mr. Melville W. Fuller to the office of Chief Justice of the United States, the President has given the country another surprise, Mr. Fuller being comparatively unknown except in his own city and State. It is a misfortune of the legal profession that its most eminent members, unless they go into political life, are usually restricted to a merely local reputation. When Mr. Phelps was selected for Minister to England, very few persons were able to identify or place him, but it became known gradually that he was one of the great lawyers of the country, and the President's choice has been signally vindicated. When Mr. Morrison R. Waite was chosen by President Grant for Chief Justice, the inquiry was at once raised —"Who is he, and where has he won his spurs?" Among the names suggested and favorably considered by President Cleveland for the position of Chief Justice was that of Mr. James C. Carter of New York. If Mr. Carter had been nominated, it would have been the unanimous opinion of the bar, the bench, and the press of this city that the ideal Chief Justice had been found. Yet the public in Illinois and in the Mississippi Valley generally would have been as much surprised and as curious to learn the facts of Mr. Carter's career as the people of the other States and sections are to learn those of Mr. Fuller. Mr. Fuller is one of those thorough practitioners whose love of the law for its own sake compels them to abjure office and popularity. This trait, conjoined to very engaging personal qualities, to wide scholarship, to rare modesty, and to a character without reproach, gives abundant promise that Mr. Fuller will be equal to the position to which he has been unexpectedly called.

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Among the pension vetoes sent in by President Cleveland on Tuesday week was one for pension to William H. Brimmer, a wagon-master in the army. Brimmer was in the wagon service eight months and twenty-five days. Twenty-three years after the expiration of his service he filed an application for pension on the ground of rupture, caused by carrying sacks of corn on his back. In his affidavit supporting the claim he said that he had never mentioned the rupture while he was in the service. In February of the present year a medical examination of the applicant was made, which developed evidence of "a small, uncomplicated inguinal hernia on the right side, which was easily retained." No evidence was offered to show that his military wagoning had anything to do with his ailment. The claim was accordingly rejected by the Pension Bureau. Brimmer then went to Congress and had no difficulty in getting his claim allowed. This case was surpassed in absurdity by another which was reported favorably by the Senate Committee on Pensions, in which the claim of a widow of a colored soldier in New Orleans was allowed on the ground that, although the evidence showed that she was a "woman of the town," her relations had not been sufficiently continuous with any one man to establish a remarriage. Senator Hoar objected to the claim, and it was de-

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feated. Regarded as a measure for reducing the surplus, this bill would have been quite as effectual as any.

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The news that Commissioner Atkins of the Indian Bureau has resigned, or is going to resign, is good news, because he has not been the real head of his office. The real head of the office has been Mr. Upshaw, and somebody is needed in the office to repress Mr. Upshaw's zeal and activity, and control his actions. Therefore, the promotion of Mr. Upshaw to the vacant place would be a most unfortunate thing, and one which we are glad to believe is not contemplated. Moreover, we doubt much whether any Commissioner can take the Bureau out of politics as long as Mr. Upshaw is in it; and it ought to be taken out of politics promptly, if only as a preparation for the approaching Presidential canvass, because it has not, as conducted of late, been a help either to the President or his party. Mr. Oberly is talked of for the vacancy, and would fill it well, provided he can control Upshaw, but not otherwise. No matter how wise or good the Commissioner may be, his virtues will be wasted unless they are combined with the power to keep Upshaw in subordination.

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The House Committee on Education has had the Blair bill before it ever since the measure passed the Senate, and has at last decided, by a vote of eight to five, to report back a substitute, introduced by Mr. Crain of Texas, which provides for the distribution of the proceeds of public land sales to the amount of $8,000,000 a year among the States and Territories in proportion to their total scholastic population. This entirely eliminates the idea of granting aid on the basis of illiteracy, and would give New York, for example, several times as much money as Mississippi and Louisiana, although the latter States have several times as much illiteracy proportionally as New York. Such a proposition is preposterous, and it hardly needs Gen. Boynton's assurance, in his despatch to the Hartford *Courant*, that "the bill will hardly pass this session."

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The platform which Senator Sherman had the Ohio Republican State Convention adopt threatens to prove a serious obstacle to his securing the Presidential nomination. On the burning issue of the tariff it is utterly opposed to the attitude of the Republicans in the further Western States. As the Omaha (Neb.) *Bee* sumarizes the plank, it means "simply that the war tariff shall be maintained, and that the people shall not receive the relief from customs taxation which they require and which the public welfare demands; that tariff taxation as it exists should not be disturbed, unless it be to make it more stringent for the benefit of industrial nabobs and corporations that are now reaping great tributes from it." The *Bee* positively declares that the West and Southwest will not subscribe to the "Ohio idea" regarding the tariff as thus enunciated, and it notifies the Republicans of that State that, while they have shown a proper loyalty to Mr. Sherman, and deserve commendation for adhering to him, they need not be surprised if their unqualified attitude in favor of maintaining the war tariff is confronted by an opposition from the West and Northwest which may seriously embarrass the candidacy of Senator Sherman.

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We have reserved comment upon the remarkable speech delivered by Mr. Samuel H. Miller, the temporary Chairman of the Pennsylvania Republican State Convention, in the hope of finding some explanation, but without success. Mr. Miller advised that the Pennsylvania Republicans should take the lead in restoring friendship and good-feeling between the two sections, and to this end protested against "a causeless and useless discussion about the captured battle-flags," against "keeping a chronological record of that class of citizens denominated 'Southern brigadiers,'" and, in short, against the whole bloody-shirt policy. He gave this advice not only on the ground that what he urged was right, but also that it was politic, as the sole chance of carrying any Southern State for the Republican party. The speech was a model of patriotism, and the only wonder is how it came to be delivered in a Pennsylvania convention. No explanation has yet appeared, but it seems safe to say that Mr. Miller will find no imitators, for the correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* reports that his speech was "freely criticised," and "evoked no response in the Convention."

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The Republican managers in Massachusetts are in a bad box. Two years ago they allowed the Governorship to be captured by a man who would never have been thought of for the place except because of his wealth. That Oliver Ames fell far below the traditional standard of Massachusetts Governors was too obvious to be questioned; that his nomination represented a sad lowering of the office from the plane of his immediate predecessor—a poor but able man—could not be disputed. But Mr. Ames wanted the place, and he got it, as rich men are apt to do when they make a dead set for an office nowadays. The organs obediently went to work asserting that he was all that could be desired, and he was elected, and re-elected last year. But the managers have always been rather ashamed of the business, and they are now anxious to get rid of Mr. Ames. To this end they have begun serving notice upon him that it is time for him to quit, and that they would feel under great obligations if he would announce his withdrawal. Precedent, however, allows a Governor of Massachusetts three terms, and Mr. Ames declares that he means to have his rights, and shall be a candidate for his party's nomination again this year. His position is impregnable—he simply says that if he was good enough to deserve election at all, he is good enough to deserve it three times, like a long line of predecessors; and the only possible way of meeting this argument is to admit that he never ought to have been Governor at all, which would involve a degree of stultification hardly to be expected.

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An amusing feature of the Massachusetts canvass is the attempt of the men opposed to Ames to get rid of him by the vociferous assertion that "it is time to elect a soldier Governor," this claim being advanced on behalf of Gen. Draper, another rich man who wants the place. A quarter of a century has passed since the war, during which period nobody has thought of taking a soldier for candidate, but all of a sudden the party managers wake up to the idea that the State cannot maintain a reputation for loyalty unless it elects as Governor in 1888 a man who served in the war which ended in 1865. This is precisely the same sort of performance that was enacted in Iowa a few months ago. Senator Wilson's term was on the point of expiring, and he had rivals in the party who did not want to see him reëlected. He had made a good record, and there was no sound reason why he should not be continued in his place; so the anti-Wilson men suddenly broke out with loud cries that "it was time to elect a soldier Senator." It was, of course, only a transparent piece of political hypocrisy, and it met deserved failure, as seems likely to be the fate of the similar tactics in Massachusetts.

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The woman-suffrage question has come to vote again in the Massachusetts Legislature, as in every Legislature with but two exceptions since 1867. The measure was presented only in the restricted form of a proposition to grant women the right to vote in municipal elections, but it secured only 36 affirmative votes to 107 in the negative. This is the smallest affirmative vote ever cast, and is in sharp contrast with the attitude of the legislators in 1871, when a resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to strike out the word male and give women full suffrage received half the votes in the House of Representatives, and was defeated only by the casting vote of the Speaker. The trouble in Massachusetts, as everywhere else, appears to be the lack of support for the proposed change among the people in whose behalf it is urged. If legislators could be convinced that the majority of women want to vote, there can be little doubt that they would favor woman suffrage; but at present they see no evidence that this is the case.

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The investigation of the boycott and lock-out in the brewing trade by the State Board of Arbitration on Thursday brought out the curious fact that the Brewers' Union attempted to boycott the Knights of Labor. Both organizations have engineers and firemen on their rolls. The witness Herbrand, Secretary of the Brewers' Union, was very reluctant to admit that his organization had boycotted the Knights, but the truth came out in the following colloquy:

Q. Your Union belonged to the Knights of Labor in 1886, did it not? A. Yes, but we ceased to be in 1887.

Q. The Knights of Labor have locals of engineers and firemen, have they not? A. Yes.

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Q. And so has your Union? A. Yes.
Q. Do you recognize this contract with the seal of your order, stipulating that no engineer or fireman shall be employed in a brewery unless he holds a card of membership in the National Brewers' Association of Journeymen Brewers? (Witness would not give a direct answer.) Did you have it printed for fun then? A. To make up our minds to lay it before the bosses.

Other evidence was dragged out of this witness, to the effect that the Brewers' Union were ordered to parade with red flags after the execution of the Chicago Anarchists, that the witness himself was a contributor to an Anarchist newspaper, and that the Anarchical tendencies of the Union were one of the reasons why the employing brewers had decided to emancipate themselves from the Union. These facts must prove extremely puzzling to the demagogues who dance to the piping of Labor. What is a candidate for office to do when he finds one trade organization stigmatizing the members of another as "scabs," and requiring the employers to sign a contract and turn such "scabs" out of their employment? The situation thus created must prove embarrassing to the most experienced and well-meaning politician. It is so hard to find out what is "organized Labor" under such conditions.

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Four out of five of the Committee of the Board of Overseers appointed to consider the subject of athletic sports at Harvard University unite in recommending the Faculty to prohibit intercollegiate contests absolutely. Many of their arguments coincide with those advanced in these columns some months ago, when we were commenting on President Eliot's annual report and his foreshadowing of this important reform. But the Committee also negative the plea most plausibly made on the other side, that college athletics would droop but for the stimulus of intercollegiate rivalry. They say explicitly that "the existing system does not tend to create a general habit of athletic exercise among the whole body of students," but "rather tends to discourage it"; and they cite rowing as a striking proof of this assertion. One member, in a minority report, recommends restricting the contests to the university teams, and letting them be played only with Yale College. This would, of course, abate the present evil, but would be open to most of the old objections, and to this other —that the long-standing feeling of animosity between Yale and Harvard would be intensified, whereas it is in the highest degree desirable that it should be extirpated, and that the two colleges should cease to think and talk of each other as being rivals in a special sense. We therefore hope the overseers and the Faculty will adopt the majority report.

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Lord Randolph Churchill has managed to produce another sensation by deserting his Tory brethren in the debate on the County-Government Bill, and attacking the Ministry for their refusal to extend the measure to Ireland. On this point the Ministry are peculiarly vulnerable. They fought Gladstone at the last election on the ground that Ireland, being an integral part of the empire, was entitled to exactly the same rights and privileges as England, and ought to have them, but nothing more, and they were very strenuous in maintaining that good county councils of some sort were just what Ireland needed, and all the Home Rule she ought to get. In fact, they came into office with the cry of equality for the Irish within the empire. Their first piece of legislation, however, on finding that the support of the Liberal Unionists could be positively relied on, was the Coercion Bill, applicable to Ireland only, and giving the Government enormously increased powers not only in punishing, but in defining crime. The execution of this law, too, has been marked by increasing severity. The police and military have been sustained in undeniably illegal courses, savage punishments have been inflicted for really trifling offences, and recently the magistrates have gone so far, doubtless on the suggestion of the Executive, as to increase sentences on appeal when the appeal has been decided against the defendant—a practice which is legal, it is true, both in England and Scotland, but on which no English or Scotch court has ever ventured. Mr. Balfour, the Irish Secretary, too, and the real ruler of Ireland at present, has made a habit of treating the whole Irish question as a huge joke, with which he produces shouts of laughter at Tory dinners and meetings. In fact, one has to go back to the beginning of the century for displays of the same cynical indifference to what are called the principles of popular government. The boldest step the Ministry have taken in that direction is, however, the announcement that they will not give Ireland the same county government as England until the Cabinet thinks the Irish are fit for it, and this announcement is made to a legislative assembly which contains 106 Irish members elected by popular vote. Churchill now says this is going too far, and his revolt is said to have produced a great sensation. But we do not think it will produce more than a sensation. The Tory ranks do not break over incidents of this sort; and the Liberal Unionists will stick to the Government as long as Gladstone lives, or their constituencies are unable to turn them out of their seats.

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What the effect of the Pope's decree pronouncing immoral the Plan of Campaign and boycotting will be in Ireland, nobody seems to know as yet. The joy of the Tories and Orangemen over it is most comic, considering the horror they usually entertain of Papal influence, and the extent to which they hold this influence responsible for the ills of Ireland. The more effect the decree produces on the Irish mind, the more sorrowful they would be if they were consistent. But their inconsistency in this is of a piece with the whole of the present attempt to restore order in Ireland. It is a mass of contradictions. The Pope's judgment will almost certainly restrict the activity of the Catholic clergy in promoting the Plan of Campaign, but as long as it is not sanctioned by a threat of withholding the sacraments, the laity will probably keep on in their present course. It is to be observed, however, that there are but few estates now in Ireland on which the rents have not been reduced in proportion to prices, either by the Plan of Campaign or by the action of the Land Commission. Consequently the practical importance of the Papal interference is very much smaller than it would have been a year ago. As to boycotting, it also has ceased, for the same reason, to be a political weapon of much value. The boycotting done now is said to be small in amount and mostly due to private malignity, and can be readily stopped.

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The Panama Lottery Bill, now under discussion in the French Chambers, is a much more sweeping measure than an authorization to borrow 350,000,000 francs, as was stated by the *Tribune* last week. Section 1 of article 1 authorizes the company to make an issue of securities amounting to 600,000,000 francs. By section 2 of article 1, in order to answer to the obligations which may be imposed upon it, the company is authorized to add 20 per cent. to the sum of the loan, or 120,000,000 francs, making a total of 720,000,000 francs. Section 3 of article 1 provides that the bonds shall receive an annual interest which shall not be less than 3 per cent. on the nominal capital. Section 4 of article 1 provides that the repayment of the loan and the payment of the prizes shall be guaranteed by a sufficient deposit in trust of French *rentes*, or securities guaranteed by the French Government. The second article of the bill, and by far the most important, authorizes the Panama Company to convert into obligations of the same type (that is, lottery bonds), and under the same conditions and guarantees, all or any part of the loans heretofore made. The significance of this clause can only be realized by consulting a table of the company's outstanding obligations. Six loans have been issued, including the one of March 14, 1888. Of the six, three consist of 500 fr. bonds at 3, 4, and 5 per cent. interest respectively, and three are 1,000 fr. bonds, one redeemable at a fixed date, and two redeemable by semi-annual drawings. The total number of bonds is something in excess of 2,000,000, and the total nominal indebtedness is about 1,500,000,000 francs, exclusive of the 300,000,000 francs of capital stock. Of the last four loans, moreover, there remained unsubscribed about 550,000 bonds, of the par value of 1,000 francs each, or an additional sum of 550,000,000 francs, which M. de Lesseps will find a way to put on the market under the Government authorization. So that the authorization is, in fact, for an amount of over two and a half milliards of francs in lottery securities. *Carte blanche* to M. de Lesseps would not have been more sweeping. Of course, this sum is yet to be raised; even the Government's connivance does not imply inexhaustible credit. The success or failure of the operations on the Isthmus will have a controlling influence in this matter.

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## MR. BLAINE'S CANDIDACY.

THE election of delegates to the Republican National Convention has already proceeded far enough to show clearly the dominant sentiment in the party as to the candidate for President. State conventions were held last week in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania at the North, and in Florida and Texas at the South, two representative States in each section; and in all, the overwhelming majority evidently desire that Mr. Blaine shall be the nominee. Even in Ohio the week before, it was manifest that the very men who made lip professions of loyalty to Sherman, at heart desired Blaine; and despite all the efforts to tie up the delegates to the alleged "favorite son," it is generally believed that fully half of them cannot, for long at least, be held from following their strong impulses away from him. Iowa and Indiana have shown more sincerity than Ohio in their support of State candidates, but nobody doubts that the delegates are in great danger at the Convention of forgetting that they are supporting home candidates. The scattering talk in two or three other States in favor of local millionaires, like Alger of Michigan and Stanford of California, deceives nobody but the men who are vain enough to waste a little of their wealth in working up "booms" which are too ridiculous to stand exposure to the national scrutiny. The occasional suggestion of men of a higher type, like Hawley of Connecticut and Gresham of Indiana, meets little response, and every such man is fatally discredited by the fact that he has shown independence enough to incur the damning odium of Mugwump praise.

Indeed, nobody can survey the field at this date, less than two months before the meeting of the Convention, without reaching the conclusion that the Republican party wants Blaine for the candidate, and means to have him. From all the evidence accessible, it appears well within bounds to say that three out of four of the party "workers" throughout the country prefer him to any and all other men. The men who in 1876, 1880, and 1884 withstood his candidacy and twice defeated it, are now either quite outside of the party or no longer wield any influence in its councils. The management of the organization is almost entirely in the hands of Blaine men, but no management is required to produce evidence of a Blaine sentiment in the conventions, for the feeling is clearly spontaneous and widespread. A small percentage of thoughtful Republicans still maintain their ancient distrust of the man, and are more than ever before convinced that it would be folly to nominate him, because the experiment has been once tried and resulted as they had always predicted; but the overwhelming majority alike of the managers and of the rank and file want Blaine, and are bent on having him.

The insincerity of the man has never been so clearly exposed as in the treatment by his party of his so-called withdrawal. "My name will not be presented to the National Convention," he wrote in his "Florence Message" of January 25. If this meant anything according to the canons accepted in the interpretation of language among honorable men, it meant that he was outside the field of possible choice. But a week had not passed after the publication of the message before the chief Republican organ, edited by Mr. Blaine's next friend, declared that he had not said that he would not be a candidate "if his party should deliberately judge his nomination necessary to its success or to the safety of the country;" and for two months the *Tribune* has labored to show that this necessity existed, without eliciting a word of protest from the person chiefly concerned. The truth is, that those who really believed that Mr. Blaine meant to withdraw, must have been undeceived by the assurances of Mr. Blaine's intimates in this country that the Convention might safely go ahead and nominate him just as though he had never said anything.

There is only one possible reason why Mr. Blaine should not run. Our theory of party government presumes that a party will nominate for the Presidency the man who best represents it, and whom it most desires to see President. There is no possible doubt that Mr. Blaine stands in this relation to the Republican party to-day. As a loyal party man Mr. Blaine would have no right to say that he would not run except in one contingency—that he was physically unable to stand a canvass or to discharge the duties of the office if elected. A few people who still cherished a belief in his sincerity attributed his so-called withdrawal to the fact that he was in ill health, and they were strengthened in this idea when they found him telling the correspondent of the New York *World*, February 25, that he "could not go through the burden and fatigue of another Presidential canvass." This theory was confirmed by the reports of various people who have seen Mr. Blaine within a few weeks, that he looked like a man badly off with disease of the kidneys. But his spokesmen in this country indignantly resent the suggestion that he is not the very picture of health. The *Tribune* declares that he is "as well as he ever was in his life," and Walker Blaine quotes his mother as writing on April 10 that his father "had not felt so strong and vigorous for many years."

No reason, therefore, appears why Mr. Blaine should not be nominated. His party wants him if he is able to run; his friends say that he is better able to run than ever before. So far as the Mugwumps are concerned, we think that as a rule they, like the Republicans—and the Democrats, too, for that matter—desire to see him nominated. They consider him unworthy to be President, and they hoped that the Republican party would be above nominating an unfit candidate; but as the party wants him, and he really represents the party as it now exists better than any other man, they would prefer to have him run, and get beaten after a fashion that would leave no chance for Burchard excuses.

## THE BRUNDAGE TAX BILL.

THE two reports of the Commission appointed to revise the tax laws of New York in the year 1870—the Commission consisting of David A. Wells, Edwin Dodge, and Geo. W. Cuyler—are supposed to be well known to all persons who give special attention to the subject there treated. These reports practically expunged all the arguments previously advanced in favor of the taxation of invisible and intangible things, such as bills of exchange, promissory notes, credits, money at interest, choses in action, cash in hand, stocks and bonds in the hands of the owners. Later reports by State Tax Commissions, whether agreeing with the point of view taken by the New York Commission or not, have served mainly to enforce their conclusions by demonstrating the perfect futility of all the attempts to reach this class of property with any approach to equality by any sort of taxing machinery.

As fresh illustrations we shall invite attention to the report of the Connecticut Tax Commission of last year, and to the more recent investigations of Prof. Ely of the Maryland Tax Commission. The latter are particularly useful by reason of the examinations (made by the writer personally in the States of Ohio, West Virginia, and Georgia) of the practical results of the energetic efforts put forth in those States to unearth and tax the invisible and intangible things which the Brundage bill seeks to reach. It is well known that the State of New York does not attempt to tax these elusive securities. The law does not exempt them, but the law has been allowed to fall into "innocuous desuetude." It is for this reason that the Brundage bill is now brought forward. If due and diligent effort has been made in any State to tax this species of property, and if the result has been a failure as conspicuous as our own, that fact should be taken as an argument *prima facie* against making the attempt here. Now what are the facts?

The Connecticut Commissioners tell us that the present system of taxing intangible things "has now been tested by the experience of thirty-six years, and it is safe to say that it has by no means fulfilled the expectations of its framers. . . . Of intangible property, such as notes, bonds, book debts, and Western mortgages, a small portion only has ever been reached, and this portion is of late growing less and less every year." The law of Connecticut since 1850 has required the taxpayer to make out and return the list of his property under oath. The following table shows the actual workings of the law since 1855:

| Year. | Bonds, notes, etc., listed. |
|---|---|
| 1855 | $19,186,092 |
| 1865 | 20,521,204 |
| 1875 | 16,355,766 |
| 1885 | 13,208,724 |

Here is a shrinkage of about 40 per cent. in property of this class returned and actually taxed since the year 1855, whereas it is well known to every intelligent citizen that the holding of such property has more than doubled in Connecticut during that interval. It would probably be within bounds to say

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that it has increased fourfold. The decline in the amount of personal property reached and reachable by the tax-gatherer in Connecticut has been in about the same ratio as in New York, where the listing of personal property is not required by the law.

In Ohio, where more diligent efforts are made to secure the taxation of personal property, a similar shrinkage in the actual results has been going on for several years. Gov. Foraker, in his last annual message, pointed out the fact that there has been a decline on the tax lists of more than $33,000,000 since 1883. Prof. Ely quotes the testimony of intelligent citizens to the effect that only 10 to 20 per cent. of personal property is reached by the taxing authorities in Columbus, and a still smaller percentage in Cincinnati. In the smaller towns a much larger proportion of personalty is reached, for the reason, probably, that in the smaller towns the people keep a sharper watch upon each other. It follows that the holders of personal property in the rural districts pay an undue proportion of the State tax, and that this happens in a State where the tax-gatherer's pursuit after personal property is keener, perhaps, than in any other State in the Union. It happens also in Ohio, as in Connecticut, that the property of widows and orphans in the probate courts gets the most disproportionate assessment of all. "A lawyer of standing in Columbus," says Prof. Ely, "who holds estates in trust for several parties, says that whenever he goes to the tax office to pay taxes, he feels capable of committing robbery, arson, and murder, because he is obliged to pay taxes on the full value of estates of two, three, and four thousand dollars belonging to little orphan children, whereas he sees wealthy clients paying on ten or fifteen per cent. of what he knows they are worth."

It was noted by Professor Ely that the State of Georgia is uncommonly well served by her chief taxing officer, the present Comptroller-General, and that his admonitions and instructions to the assessors to look carefully after personal property and see that "no guilty man escapes" have been very persistent and methodical. The taxpayer in Georgia is required to make out the list of his personal property and swear to it. He must catalogue his goods, chattels, watches, furniture, kitchen utensils, moneys, credits, and effects of every kind whatsoever, ships and boats and the property contained therein, all money due to him from within or without the State, and all stocks, bonds, or other securities of corporations within or without the State. After making out the list, he must be examined by the assessor by way of refreshing his recollection, and his answers must be taken down in writing. If he has control or possession of any property belonging to others, he must catalogue that portion separately. When the lists are thus perfected they are turned over to the Grand Jury of the county for a fresh examination, and after they have been scrutinized and passed upon by that body they go into the hands of the tax receiver.

This system is not only the law, but it is faithfully and diligently executed. There is no complaint in any quarter of laxity on the part of the assessors or the Grand Jury, yet the results are extremely unsatisfactory. The Comptroller-General, in his report for 1886, says: "From a careful examination of the digest on file in this office, it is evident to me that such [personal] property is not returned as it should be. . . . A great many merchants and other citizens of this State have borrowed money on bonds, notes, and other evidences of debt owed by them, and have deposited such bonds, notes, etc., as collateral security with the persons from whom they have made such a loan, and *think* that said notes, bonds, etc., being out of their hands on April 1, such property should not be returned by them; this is not true." In the mere article of merchandise offered for sale, which can be seen and handled, he says that not 50 per cent. is returned for taxation. In the whole city of Savannah there were not ten watches returned for taxation. The usual complaint about perjury was rife.

The same story is told for West Virginia. A special Tax Commission was organized and set to work in that State in the year 1884. They reported that not more than one-fifth of the invisible property was ever listed for taxation, and that of the visible personal property listed one-half was assessed 40 per cent. lower than the other half. "All the taxes from invisible property," they say, "come from a few conspicuously conscientious citizens, from widows, executors, and from guardians of the insane and infants; in fact, it is a comparatively rare thing to find a shrewd trader who 'gives in' any considerable amount of notes, stocks, or money. The truth is, things have come to such a condition in West Virginia that, as regards paying taxes on this class of property, it is almost as voluntary, and is considered pretty much in the same light, as donations to the neighborhood church or Sunday-school."

In Wisconsin the same condition of things was found, but that State appears to have drifted into the easy condition of New York, the attempt to tax personal property having been practically abandoned except in the small villages and rural districts. Now, the question for the New York Legislature to consider is whether it is worth while to make a fresh effort to do something which experience has shown, over and over again, cannot be done. In order to answer this question intelligently, let us inquire what the thing is that it is sought to do. It is to impose a penalty of about 2 per cent. per annum for the offence of bringing into or retaining in the State circulating and movable property which gives value to all the fixed property of the State, corporate or real. At the present time New York offers great attractions to this kind of property by the practical exemption she offers from taxation. She has profited by it to an enormous degree. Rich people have come and are coming from all parts of the country to take up their residence among us. Is this desirable or is it not? Is the spending of all this money in and around New York a benefit to the city and State, or otherwise? Would it be wise to reverse the current, and set the flow of capital outward rather than inward? We fancy that there are not two opinions on this subject. We judge that the holders of city real estate would be the first to cry "Hold!" if they observed any movement which tended to check the incoming and to promote the outgoing of personal property.

But we are told that while it is true that real estate in cities derives its value from the presence of personal property, which tends more and more to accumulate in cities, the farming community derives no such benefit, and that thus an unequal burden falls on agricultural land. This is true in part, because the New York farmer has to compete with all other farmers whose products can reach this market; but, on the other hand, the advance in city real estate due to the growth of personal property enables and requires the cities to pay 80 per cent. or more of the State taxes, New York and Brooklyn alone paying 55 per cent., while several of the rural counties actually receive from the State Treasury more money than they pay into it. In point of fact, the taxation of the State of New York is now so extremely light (2 7-10 mills on the dollar of a valuation which is probably not above 40 per cent. of the real value) that we should hardly be aware of the demands of the State Treasury if we did not receive the reports of the Comptroller once a year.

## *THE BOULANGER CAMPAIGN.*

The Boulangist campaign in France becomes, as a study of political manners, more and more interesting. In the first place, far from submitting a programme of any sort to the public, Boulanger firmly declines to say what his plan for redeeming France is. This recalls to some of the wags of the press what was known as the "plan Trochu" during the siege of Paris, or, in other words, a plan which Gen. Trochu had for routing the Germans, but which he refused to communicate to any one until the decisive moment had come, and which, they said, he had in the meantime deposited with a notary. When Boulanger is asked what his plan is, he replies that "this is his secret," and that he should be a fool to reveal it. He cites as a precedent for this reticence the course of Mr. Gladstone in refusing to produce now, while he is out of office, a plan of Irish home rule. Being asked to what party he considered himself as belonging, he declared that he belonged to no party. How could any one think, after what the country had seen of parties during the past seventeen years, that he was going "to brigade himself in a party"? If they had only seen what he saw of parties in the Chamber while he was Minister of War, they would never want to hear of a party again. What he aims at is to convert the "Boulangist party" (*le parti Boulangiste*) into the party of France—a party which would have nothing to do with politics, but would occupy itself with "general interests."

The interview at which these ideas were extracted occurred at Rochefort's house, and when the General was asked how, exactly

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and in detail, this Boulangist party was to be formed, Rochefort answered for him that at the rate things were then going, the whole Chamber would be Boulangist in one year from that date, there being already thirty Boulangist Deputies. At this point Boulanger himself took up the tale, and intimated that what he was driving at was the Presidency of the republic, which, when the Chamber was entirely Boulangist, he of course would have, and he would be no more a dictator, he declared, than Grévy or Carnot.

He was asked whether, when he was President, he would go to war. This he denied indignantly, and told the reporter of the *Figaro* he might head the article he was going to write, "Boulanger, c'est la paix"—which of course recalls in a comic way the Napoleonic phrase, "l'Empire, c'est la paix." This, he said, was his answer to placards which had been stuck up all over the country headed "Boulanger, c'est la guerre." The nearest approach to a declaration of his policy which he made was in laying down his dinner knife on the table, and calling the reporter's attention to the straight line made by the blade and handle. "I am just like that line," said he; "why should I be obliged to go to one side or the other?" When he left the room, Rochefort exclaimed: "I adore that man. Did you ever see anybody simpler, or more natural, or, in short, a better fellow?" On the reporter's suggesting modestly that when Boulanger got into power, perhaps Rochefort would turn against him, the latter replied: "That will be *his* affair; but really this time I don't think I am mistaken." The only thing certain and definite that can be extracted, in fact, from the conversations of either the General or his friends is that he thinks he occupies the position which Louis Napoleon occupied in 1851; that the country is tired of parties and of parliamentary government, and wants a great man to take it out of the slough; that he, Boulanger, may, under these circumstances, consider himself "France," and do the best he can to get the Government into his hands. It does not appear that he has now or ever had any political ideas, except such as pass current in French barracks and are produced at mess-tables.

The politicians in the meantime are very much alarmed by him. The best observers felt sure he would carry neither Dordogne nor Nord, but he carried both by large majorities, although the Republican delegation in the Chamber from both these departments, issued addresses warning the voters against him as a dictator in disguise. Even the Reds have denounced him vigorously in addresses and proclamations, but without much effect. The following are some specimens of the stories by which his canvass was helped in Nord: that he was a sailor, and went a-fishing on the banks of Newfoundland before he entered the army, and therefore ought to have the sailor vote; that he is a natural son of Napoleon III.; that he is a grandson of Napoleon I. in this way: A man named Boulanger, who had been a miner, entered the Grand Army under Napoleon the Great, and rose to high rank, and became very intimate with the Emperor, who, having had a child by a Russian princess, begged Boulanger to father it and give it his name, which Boulanger very obligingly did; and the present candidate is the child in question, and ought to have both the miner vote and the Bonapartist vote. Of course there are defects in this story. On the face of the narrative, it would seem as if he were the son and not the grandson of the first Napoleon, and as if, this being so, he ought now to be about seventy years old; but these little discrepancies do not count about election time. Moreover, there is an almanac widely circulated in the rural districts in his behalf, which declares that the signs of the zodiac make it very clear that he will conquer Germany on the 7th of May, 1890, and be proclaimed President of the republic in 1891. One Boulangist stump-orator goes about with a dog, which barks loudly when his master in his speeches mentions the name of Jules Ferry, the principal representative of the Opportunist party. There is a good suggestion in this for our campaign speakers. A dog taught to bark joyously on hearing Blaine's name, and to howl piteously on hearing Cleveland's, or conversely, might produce a good effect among doubtful voters.

It cannot be said that the French Republicans deserve or are receiving much sympathy in this the hour of their distress. They have persisted for ten years in the policy of overturning ministries for trifles, in spite of repeated warnings as to how it would end. No attempt have they made to build up a strong and united party, or to kill the suicidal habit of supporting the Cabinet only in return for "favors" and "recognition." They are rallying now, and trying to show a united front to the enemy—the terrible coming "Cæsar"; but it is humiliating to see the kind of Cæsar he is—a smug-faced soldier who never gained a victory or commanded in a battle, who won his promotion by sycophancy, and has no sign of the hero about him except his seat on horseback, which, however, is admitted on all hands to be rather that of a ring-master than of a great commander.

One thing they are mourning over bitterly—the substitution of the *scrutin de liste*, or general ticket, for the *scrutin d'arrondissement*, or district ticket. This was Gambetta's plan for stopping jobbery among the Deputies, by making each Deputy the representative of the whole department elected on a general ticket, instead of the single representative of one district. He thought that in this way the claims of constituents would weigh less heavily on each member. The scheme, however, has had no great success as regards jobbery, and it is now furnishing the Boulangists with the means of wiping out the minority completely in all departments in which they are a majority. On a general ticket in such cases they carry every seat, and give each election the air of that dreadful thing the "plébiscite," with which Napoleon wrought such execution among his enemies.

## *INCAPABLE ENTHUSIASTS.*

THERE is an aphorism of Lichtenberg's, quoted by Mr. John Morley in his recent lecture, to the effect that enthusiasts without capacity are the really dangerous people. At first thought the saying is paradoxical. It is the enthusiasts with capacity, one is disposed to say, that are to be feared, for they can accomplish something. Yet, if we consider the matter, it appears that the enthusiasts with capacity are the really great men. Giving the word capacity a not unreasonably broad meaning, it is only such men that urge the world into genuine progress. If they led men astray, they would prove their incapacity. There have been perhaps great men who had little enthusiasm, although, of course, they had capacity, but their part has been that of conservators rather than reformers. The great onward lurches of the race have been due to the men of combined fire and steel, of energy as well as intellect, distinguished, in short, by both enthusiasm and capacity.

Wherein, then, lies the danger of incapable enthusiasts? It is in the misdirection of their enthusiasm. They hold up unattainable ideals, and lead men off on hopeless expeditions. In this way they cause a treble mischief. They consume time in futile struggles, they waste energies that would have been available for good, and they throw discredit upon all enthusiasm for reform. They have neither that kind of capacity, called common sense, which enables some men to distinguish between the practicable and the impracticable, nor that capacity, called insight, which enables others to anticipate the direction which progress must take. There is enough of the spirit of self-sacrifice in the world, of "public spirit," to make things a great deal better than they are, if it were properly directed. But if it is scattered and diverted in a thousand different directions and towards inconsistent ends, progress is blocked; and it is in achievements of this kind that incapable enthusiasts accomplish their mischief. Fortunately, as they get in one another's way and quarrel, their results are chiefly negative. They fail to carry out their own schemes, but they succeed in thwarting others. Unfortunately, they disconcert the plans of the wise as well as of the foolish.

For the most incapable of enthusiasts must have a following. No cause is so absurd as not to attract some one when enthusiastically urged, for the reason that enthusiasm is intrinsically attractive. It is a generous trait, and although not incompatible with egotism, it is incompatible with deliberate selfishness. It tends to carry a man outside of himself, and thereby acquires a moral quality. In fact, the predominant meaning of the word seems to be devotion to ends relating to the condition of mankind, and it is rather by a figure of speech that men are said to be enthusiasts in pursuits unconnected with the interests of their fellows. So essentially is man a social animal that whoever declaims to him that great line of Terence's, straightway wins his heart. No matter how fantastic the champion, his spirit is contagious, and by mere enthusiasm he becomes a power. When the major premise is friendship to humanity, it is odious to inquire too particularly into the minor, and if it is believed that a man's heart is in the right place, most people do not concern themselves about his head.

To criticise enthusiasts is thus always an invidious thing, and moreover their prophetic attributes serve them as a protection. Their ideals are all in the future, and as no one knows what the future may bring forth, it

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is not easy to show that these ideals cannot be realized. Nor can it be denied that the world has often been mistaken, and pronounced those men incapable enthusiasts who finally have been determined to be great reformers. It is not always the case that great men are very articulate reasoners, and geniuses have a way of reaching their conclusions by instinct or inspiration rather than by logical process. Hence it is inferred that those who do not reach their conclusions by reason must do so by inspiration—a principle that hedges all enthusiasts with a certain divinity. Truly it is not easy to discriminate. Hardly any one would now call John Brown an incapable enthusiast, yet at the time of his epoch-making foray it was thought charitable to call him a madman. He may, perhaps, have reasoned as well as Arnold of Winkelried, or thought not without reason that he could play the part of Samson in the temple of the Philistines. The denunciation that fell upon him was of the same nature as that which fell upon the other abolitionists; they were odious because they were held incapable, and yet the incapacity proved to be rather on the part of the critics than of the enthusiasts.

The case of the abolitionists, however, is an excellent example of the possibility of distinguishing true prophecy from false. For nothing was plainer than that our society would not always tolerate slavery. There was nothing unprecedented in the demands of the abolitionists. Slavery had been abolished before, and it was rather surprising that it should have been maintained so long in a community so far advanced in civilization. No one who pretended to reason could assert that history taught that slavery was a permanent institution, or that it would exist in an ideal state of society. All that could be rationally urged against the abolitionists was that their methods were not the correct ones, or that the time was not ripe—arguments that were refuted by the logic of events if not by that of the anti-slavery party. Hence it was necessary to resort to appeals to the feelings, to coarse abuse, and even to violence against these enthusiasts, who had reason on their side; and when these arguments are employed, there is a presumption against the case of those who employ them. In fact, it may be laid down that the criterion of the capacity of enthusiasts is the attitude of their opponents. The final appeal is to reason; those who attempt to bring their case before other tribunals admit its weakness.

If we contrast with the abolitionists some of the enthusiasts of the present day, the applicability of the distinctions which we have taken becomes apparent. Their declared aim is to increase the wealth of the poor, and they propose to accomplish it by subtracting from that of the rich. It is true that political economy teaches that the accumulation of capital tends to increase wages; but as they dislike the conclusions of that science, and lack the capacity to follow its reasonings, they declare with the greatest assurance that it is obsolete. They propose to abolish the ancient relation of master and servant, and to institute a novel kind of partnership between labor and capital, in which labor shall dictate its own wages, control the management, and share in the profits, while capital shall bear all the losses. They lament the woes of the poor, and rejoice over the formation of trades-unions, whose principal effect and whose avowed object is to shut out the poor from opportunities of work, and whose practice is to persecute those who endeavor to maintain their independence or who try to work in defiance of union hostility. They declaim against the injustice of the present constitution of society, and ignore the injustice which they encourage men to inflict upon one another. They refuse to explain the details of their projected reforms, but the most logical of them are driven into Socialism, and advocate the improvement of the condition of the poor by setting up the Government in business with capital furnished by the taxation of the poor whose condition it is to improve, regardless of the lessons of experience concerning the wastefulness of all governmental enterprises.

The most conspicuous proof of the incapacity of these enthusiasts is their insensibility to moral considerations. The great causes of poverty, vice, improvidence, laziness, and dishonesty, are treated as its effects, and charity to the poor is indeed made to cover a multitude of sins. The outrageous and growing faithlessness of laborers as regards the performance of their contracts meets with no condemnation from these effusive sympathizers with labor. They rave over the corruption of our legislation by capitalists, and ignore the fact that laborers form a majority of the electoral body, and that they prefer to choose representatives so ignorant, so dishonest, and so rapacious that capitalists are compelled to buy them off to avoid ruin. It has not often been the case, in the history of our race, that enthusiasm for justice has been attended with such a disregard for the most elementary virtues. It is a most discouraging sign that so large a proportion of our clergy and of the writers for the "religious" press should have proved themselves incapable enthusiasts by their utterances in these matters. They may not have much positive influence for evil, but they have encouraged so much folly that it is impossible to look for any great improvement in the condition of the poor until this generation has passed away.

## IRISH NOTES.

DUBLIN, April 18, 1888.

AFTER a harsh and backward period, spring is coming upon us in all its beauty. Light clouds shadow the hills over which green tints are spreading; the birds answer each other in the hedges—over all there is the indefinable charm of the season. The moral order in Ireland is, however, not changed. A coercive policy is being carried out to the uttermost. William O'Brien was arrested on Saturday, John Dillon yesterday. Numerous are the other arrests, mainly in connection with the meetings in the west on Sunday week, where Mr. Balfour's challenge regarding the suppression of the League was resolutely taken up, and an attempt made to hold meetings in spite of their being tardily proclaimed. Some of these meetings were suppressed with brutal violence. At Ennis the people managed to elude the authorities and assemble in a warehouse opening off a yard separated from the street by a gateway. As they were passing out the authorities came upon them. The people made no resistance, and even opened the gates for the police, who commenced taking down their names. It has been fully proved that not a hand was raised or a stone thrown. Yet into this yard and upon these people charged, by order, police with drawn bâtons, infantry with fixed bayonets, and cavalry with sabres. Many persons were injured. The armed forces of the Crown cannot have had their hearts in the work, or the results must have been fatal. Fortunately, at least one English member was present to see what occurred the same day at Loughrea.

It is difficult to understand the policy of the Government regarding the suppression of meetings. The humane course would be to issue the prohibition as long as possible beforehand, and to give it the fullest publicity; instead of which it is often delayed until the evening before, or the very day of the meeting. Crowds of countrymen attend, and a police charge is to many the first intimation that they have placed themselves in opposition to what is here called law. It doubtless has a discouraging effect, and that may be the intention of the Government. The poor, depending on their daily labor, cannot afford to run the risk of broken heads and disabled limbs. Mr. Balfour also probably wishes to make it appear that every meeting not suppressed is held by his permission. There is never any disturbance where the police and military do not interfere. Of late years, since we became accustomed to the presence of the Government note-taker, he is invariably protected and accorded a place on the platform. Meetings were announced for Sunday week, and at the last moment suppressed. Another was advertised for last Sunday, at New Ross, on the border of a district where the League is suppressed. Large bodies of military were quartered in the town. William O'Brien was arrested on his way to this gathering. Elaborate preparations were made for eluding the authorities and holding meetings elsewhere if necessary. Only when ten o'clock in the forenoon came, and no prohibition had been issued, was it felt with any degree of certainty that the meeting would be permitted. The police and military were confined to the barracks. The Government note-taker marched with the promoters between bands and banners. Perfect order and good humor prevailed, as is always the case when the people are left to themselves. The few police and soldiers off duty that strayed into the crowd passed unnoticed. Some 6,000 persons were present, and the number might have been doubled had there been any certainty of non-interference.

Nothing can be more futile than Mr. Balfour's assertion that he has really suppressed the spirit of the League, and weakened its prestige and organization. He has made it more dangerous; in the proclaimed districts secret gatherings and secret combinations replace open proceedings. The people are more than ever devoted to their leaders. William O'Brien's character has been revealed to an extraordinary degree. The crudeness, bitterness, and exaggeration that too often characterize *United Ireland*, of which he is editor, have led the outside public to underestimate his entire singleness of purpose, simplicity of nature, self-forgetfulness, and religious fervor. It is said by many that he intends, when the Irish question is satisfactorily settled, to enter a monastery, and this I quite believe. Nothing can shake Mr. Parnell's position as leader; but O'Brien and Dillon are the most beloved of the people, sharing personally their difficulties and dangers.

I never travel through Ireland or look beneath the surface here that I am not renewedly and painfully impressed with the dark shadows that inevitably accompany this movement. It is quite different from anti-slavery, or temperance, or any other great agitation in which the mainspring is conscientiousness and philanthropy. In our cause, indeed, such motives characterize the leaders and large numbers of the rank and file, and English support is generally unselfish; but the chief incentive here, so far as the land (apart from the Nation-

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al) question is concerned, is personal interest, a desire to escape from the incubus of a land system that is crushing out the life-blood of the country. This personal interest inevitably leads to the assertion of much that is unreasonable, and much actual dishonesty. For instance, the position of prominent Nationalists is often shamefully taken advantage of by tenants. A landlord friend of mine was discouraged from openly joining the movement by a Nationalist leader, who warned him that if he did so, his tenants would take unfair advantage of him. One of the leaders lately applied for rent to a backward tenant, who held land at a low valuation. The tenant admitted this, but said: "I hold another farm at a rack-rent from X., who is not a Nationalist, and I must pay him, and so cannot pay you." As the good and bad landlords stand together, so do the good and bad tenants. Each side believes that whatever is good in the aims of antagonists is overshadowed by what is evil in their methods. Each side condones and ignores the evil in the character and methods of supporters, in view of the overwhelming good which is expected from the attainment of the common object. I do not see why this should be so much the practice here. We are required to keep silence regarding anything and everything objectionable in those who nominally side with us. Perhaps a reason for this may be found in a desire to avoid even the semblance of the division so much desired by opponents, and which has been the curse of Irish politics. Such want of candor, however, provides future complications and perils. The condition of parts of Kerry is appalling. The murder of poor Fitzpatrick at Lixnaw was most brual and unprovoked. Yet, because his daughter Norah had helped to prosecute and convict the murderers at the assizes, when she appeared on Sunday at chapel a large number of the congregation left, despite the protests of the clergy. Moreover, a conviction of the murderers would, I believe, never have been secured if they had not been tried under the Coercion Act in another county. It is easy for an English party to make political capital out of delaying a settlement, but reconstruction will be no easy task, and to us and not to them it must fall.

Regarding land settlement, things are in the accustomed confusion. No government has as yet compassed a real final reform. This tinkering satisfies no one but the lawyers, except, perhaps, the tenants who are purchasing under Lord Ashbourne's Act. Those whose rents were adjusted a few years ago are as discontented as ever. Some 60,000 cases await the courts. Uniform principles of land valuation for separating and defining the interests of landlord and tenant are more than ever seen to be impossible. Men pay large sums for interest in farms, and a few months afterwards go into court and get the rents reduced upon the basis of which they made the purchase. I lately heard of a case in which a tenant of an agricultural holding near Dublin had his rent reduced to £2 an acre, while his neighbor on the other side of a wall sold his land at £800 an acre for building purposes. Ownership in most instances is the only possible satisfactory settlement. How that is to be effected is the difficulty. The people in many districts now hold back, as the landlords formerly did. They still see that the rent and price of a farm depend upon its condition and capacity, and so they prefer to drift and let matters go to waste for a while longer, trusting to what may turn up.

The ascendency class here are jubilant. Several waverers of two years ago have returned to the fold. On the other hand, there are many Protestants more distinctly in touch with the people, and whose ideas of liberty and constitutional government have some bases in conviction, who are becoming aware that a continuance of the present state of things is impossible. A protest against coercion is being signed by Irish as well as English members of the Society of Friends.

As to public opinion on the whole in the United Kingdom, the Tory position is still strong. Mr. Balfour's policy may have to be tested much longer before its overthrow. I doubt whether, if an election took place now, the position of parties would be materially changed. Under all the circumstances of Ireland, and sad as it is for her, I cannot on their own account regret the decision of the thousands of our young people who are taking their fortunes in their hands, and crowding to our seaports to embark for the United States.

I have spoken of the internal condition of this country, and hazarded an opinion as to the state of feeling in England. I cannot conclude without reference to what is generally supposed to be going on in Rome. Archbishop Walsh, one of the ablest and most vehement Nationalist ecclesiastics, has been detained there some months. Contrary influences are evidently at work. Many of the best informed shake their heads, and believe that the Pope will eventually be worked upon to abate the zeal of the clergy in the cause of home rule. Others are firmly convinced that he will never risk in the slightest degree alienating the Irish people. By some it is thought that a temporary settlement is being negotiated which might be urged upon the clergy, as preferable for the interests of the Church to a continuance of the present contest. On the whole, intelligent Catholic Nationalists regard the position of affairs in Rome with some anxiety, while they admit that any action the Vatican may think proper to take would only retard—it could not prevent—the ultimate accomplishment of home rule. D. B.

## FERRY'S BALZAC.—II.

PARIS, April 18, 1888.

THE daughter of Mme. Gay, Delphine, who was extremely handsome, married the famous journalist, Émile de Girardin. Balzac was a friend of Mme. de Girardin, but his relations with her husband never became very cordial. When he wrote his 'Médecin de Campagne,' in 1837, he hoped that Girardin would publish it in one of his papers, the *Journal des Connaissances Utiles*, which had 100,000 subscribers (an enormous number for the time); but the editor, who was of a very positivist turn of mind, thought the 'Médecin de Campagne' a very uninteresting *berquinade*, and would give no extracts from it. Balzac was offended; he wrote to Mme. Carraud: "This book is better than laws, or battles even; it is the gospel in action. How many people have already wept over the confession of the Country Doctor! Mme. d'Abrantès, who rarely weeps, has wept over the disasters of the Beresina, and the life of Napoleon told by a soldier in a barn." Balzac and Girardin quarrelled on some other points, and Mme. de Girardin found it difficult to reconcile them when Girardin wished to have some novels for a new paper which he had founded, the *Presse*. Balzac used to go and see Mme. de Girardin only at the hours when he knew he should not find her husband. He made in her house the acquaintance of Lamartine, who afterwards, in his 'Cours de Littérature,' made a very living portrait of the author of the "Comédie humaine." Balzac dedicated to Lamartine his 'César Birotteau.' One of his most extraordinary novels, 'Les Paysans,' which reveals a profound knowledge of the sentiments of the rural population of France, and of the effects of the French Revolution, appeared in the *Presse*. At the very moment when he worked at the 'Paysans' he was preparing for another paper, the *Constitutionnel*, that masterpiece, 'Cousine Bette,' which forms the first part of the 'Parents pauvres.'

The 'Paysans' appeared in 1846. It had no great success—it was too true. Its readers did not find it amusing—they were spoiled by the stories of Alexandre Dumas, the father. Girardin insisted every day on some abbreviations in the feuilleton; Balzac, who cared much for his long and almost photographic descriptions, was in a state of constant irritation. Mme. de Girardin poured oil between the wheels. She had it in mind to make of Balzac a member of the French Academy, as she was intimate with Lamartine, with Victor Hugo, with Charles Nodier, with Barante. Balzac was not very anxious to present himself; his affairs were embarrassed, and his monetary condition very precarious. At the last moment he withdrew his candidacy; Victor Hugo persisted, however, in giving him his vote. Who was elected in his place? I really do not know. Balzac never made the famous visits, so it cannot be said that he ever was a candidate; but it is clear that he was not encouraged, and that, if he had been in the least, he would have presented himself.

In the autumn of 1833, Balzac made, in a hotel at Neufchâtel, Switzerland, the acquaintance of the Countess Hanska, who was with her husband and her daughter. Mme. Hanska, who was of Polish extraction, was at that time thirty years old. She had the peculiar grace and distinction which belong to the women of her race; she spoke French to perfection, and was well acquainted with all the works of Balzac. Her notions were very aristocratic. Count Hanska was a great Russian proprietor, in the Government of Kieff. He invited Balzac to make him a visit at his estate. Mme. Hanska was of a mystical turn of mind, and full of imagination. At the end of 1833 she began a correspondence with Balzac which was never interrupted. The friendship which had sprung up on the Lake of Neufchâtel became, by a constant communion of thoughts, a deep affection. He confided to her all his troubles, his difficulties, his projects. He sent her his portrait painted by Boulanger.

In 1838 Balzac became acquainted with the gifted and beautiful Princess Belgiojoso, who had for a moment inspired a passion in Alfred de Musset. "She has had the good fortune to displease me," wrote Balzac to Mme. Hanska; "her house is well kept, and her people are very witty. I have been there two Saturdays, and have dined once; that will be all." In that same year Balzac, being a little more easy in mind, bought a piece of land at Ville-d'Avray, and built the little house which he has made famous. The view from it is admirable: the valley of Ville-d'Avray, the immense panorama of Paris, the hills of Meudon and of Bellevue. "Forty-five thousand francs more of debt," he wrote to Mme. Carraud. "The folly, you see, is complete now. I must pay, and, in order to do so, I work every night." Still, the speculator—for whoever has read Balzac must know that there was a speculator in him—was satisfied. He wrote to Mme. Hanska that the value of the place would soon be doubled. The truth is, that it was only a source of expense to him. He soon found himself so embarrassed that he entered into a mining adventure. He had read, in Tacitus,

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that the island of Sardinia had numerous silver mines, and that the Romans had found much silver in them. He found himself, in 1837, in Genoa, and, remembering these lines of Tacitus, he had a conversation on the subject with a merchant of the town. This old merchant did not much encourage him; but some time afterwards, Carraud, who was a friend of the chemist Biot, having found a method for the extraction of silver from various ores, Balzac determined to go himself to Sardinia. He went to Corsica, and had to cross over to Sardinia in a small bark. He found, after many adventures, the silver district, and, to his great surprise, his old friend from Genoa, who had obtained the concession from the Court of Turin. He came philosophically back to France, by way of Milan and the Alps. His journey had lasted more than three months; it is a pity he did not write an account of it.

In the year 1842 he attempted drama for the first time. He read the "Ressources de Quinola" himself to the artists of the Odéon. The first four acts were heard with interest. "Now, sir," said the actors, "the fifth act." "The fifth act? I have not composed it yet, or, rather, I have not written it; but I will tell it to you," and he improvised his fifth act before the stupefied artists. The piece fell flat. The *parterre* of the Odéon, at that time, was very ferocious. *Quinola* is a cousin of *Figaro*, but his wit was not well understood, and it must be confessed that Balzac had not the sense of stage requirements.

Mme. Hanska, in 1843, became a widow and the mistress of a great territorial fortune, and established herself in St. Petersburg. Balzac had not seen her for a long time. He went to Russia and stayed with her for two months. Mme. Hanska stayed in Dresden in 1845, but she did not allow Balzac to visit her at once in that city; she had several members of her own family in Saxony, and was afraid of their comments. Balzac went, nevertheless, though for a few days only, to Dresden, and made the acquaintance of Count George Mniszech, who became his friend at once. Count Mniszech was then paying attentions to the daughter of Mme. Hanska, whom he married the year afterwards.

Balzac afterwards joined Mme. Hanska for a little time at Baden. He had made her an offer of marriage; this union was to him, in the midst of his troubles, a ray of hope. Mme. Hanska hesitated a little; she admired Balzac, but she was not very young, she was not very romantic, though she was of a poetical disposition. It is easy to imagine that Balzac's courtship was much interrupted. With a degree of sincerity which did not always plead for him, he told all the complications of his existence to Mme. Hanska, who was his confidante and sometimes his adviser. In the absence of his friend, he felt homesick: "Forgive me, I am so unhappy to be in Paris while you are in Naples." He was allowed to go and see her in Rome. He felt a great enthusiasm for the Eternal City. He saw her again at Wiesbaden, and it was at this time that he wrote his masterpieces, 'Cousin Pons' and 'Cousine Bette." They had finally affianced themselves (the engagement took place while they were in Rome), and Mme. Hanska came to Paris; but the marriage did not take place at once. She had adjourned it to the time when their situation should be less embarrassed with business affairs. She had herself many difficulties connected with the succession of Count Hanska, and with her daughter's settlements.

Balzac bought a little house in the Rue Fortunée, and, in expectation of his future wife, turned it into a complete museum. He had the genius of what we now call bric-à-brac, as is well shown in the 'Peau de Chagrin' and some other of his novels. He lived in the happy time when the curiosities of the Renaissance, the beautiful remains of the seventeenth century, the charming *meubles* of the eighteenth century, could be bought for a trifle. Long before the Goncourts, Balzac revealed to us the beauties of the French art of the past. He bought somewhat indiscriminately, but he never bought anything really bad or vulgar. He had Florentine furniture, the commode of Marie de Médicis, the secretary of Henry IV., which he had found in Luynes during a journey in Touraine. Balzac supposed that these two pieces had been presented by Marie de Médicis to the Maréchal d'Ancre. He had also many beautiful pieces—magnificent old panels in carved wood—of the time of Henri II., of the time of Louis XIV. and Louis XV. Balzac was not much of a connoisseur in pictures, but he had the good fortune to find some good pictures of the eighteenth century in France; in Rome, he bought good Italian pictures, as well as a Holbein. We will say nothing of his many *bibelots*.

Balzac has spoken with much feeling of the dispersion of a collection in 'Cousin Pons.' The same fate awaited his own. In the commencement of 1847, he left for Russia, and was received by Mme. Hanska at her château. She was not yet ready to abandon her daughter, whom she thought too young for the administration of a great fortune. Balzac returned to France just in time to be a witness of the Revolution of 1848. This revolution was a great blow to him personally, as it caused perturbation in all his affairs. Literature suffered from politics, his health became affected by his numerous annoyances; the doctors discovered that he had heart disease. His marriage was delayed by the difficulty of obtaining the consent of the Emperor of Russia, and this could only be evaded by the complete donation of Mme. Hanska's estates to her children. Her irresolution came to an end when she saw how ill Balzac really was. His affection had lasted for seventeen years; she saw now this constant friend in a pitiable state of health, she consulted her heart more than her reason. He had fallen ill at her house in Ukraine. When he was well enough to think of travelling, she said to him: "You will not travel alone, you will take your wife with you."

The marriage was celebrated on the 14th of March, 1850, in presence of the Count and Countess Mniszech. On the 20th of August, 1850, Balzac died in Paris. His married life had lasted five months. The sister of Mme. Hanska was married to "Bibliophile Jacob" (M. Lacroix); she died about a year ago at the age of exactly one hundred years. M. Lacroix died a few years ago. In their apartment in the Rue de la Ville l'Évêque, which I visited a few weeks ago, are the few last remains of Balzac—his portrait, when he was young, the portrait of Mme. Hanska, an elderly lady, dressed in the fashion of 1830. Two old servants who had been in the house for many years showed me these remains almost with emotion, when they perceived that my sentiment was more than an idle curiosity. Mme. de Balzac herself died before her older sister, Mme. Lacroix. She lived to the end in the apartment in the Rue Fortunée, but she lived in great distress. She was very unregulated, if not extravagant. She pawned and sold, one after another, the fine objects collected by Balzac; and, after her death, at the beginning of 1882, whatever remained of the collection, and the house itself, were sold.

# Correspondence.

## THREE CASES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Goschen, the British Chancellor of the Exchequer, has just brought in the annual budget. The most remarkable thing about it is not the conversion of debt, as that, though it required coolness and nerve, was merely a question of price. Our own debt has been converted, though more easily, yet in the same way. Nor do I now raise the question as to the policy of paying debt or reducing taxation. What makes it of such interest is the ease and quietness and rapidity with which a year's finance is settled. Mr. Goschen, speaking exactly as if it were his private purse, calculates the balance of his income and expenditure within 2½ per cent. of the whole, and this is a large margin, as the calculation in some years runs as low as 1 per cent. or even less. With his surplus he proposes to take a penny off the income tax, but as that would require rather more, he takes an increase of certain assessed taxes. That is all there is of it. There is no committee to overhaul every year all the principles of taxation, and every branch of revenue and expenditure, throwing the country into a paroxysm of terror, and never coming to any intelligible conclusion at all. Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley may criticise the wisdom of this special action, but it is well understood that what the country needs in finance is quiet and a steady policy; that the man who has the responsibility must also have the power, and that Parliament must not interfere. Yet the responsibility is also sharply enforced, as in the case of the famous match-tax, which ruined the career of Mr. Robert Lowe as a financier. None but a first-class financier can hold the position, and a proved man of that type is allowed to have his own way. Mr. Goschen's success has done probably more than any one thing to strengthen the present Ministry.

Let us now cross the Channel. There are, or rather there were, two financial authorities in France, the Finance Minister and the Budget Commission, but the struggle which, of course, took place between them has ended in a complete victory for the latter. The life of ministries, which in the first years of the republic was counted by years, came down to months, then to weeks, and is now almost a question of days. Of course, a finance minister of this kind can have no policy. Each new incumbent submits his ideas, which the Budget Commission treats with contempt. But that Commission, like the dog in the manger, will neither let anybody else do anything nor do anything itself. It desires unlimited expenditure, but does not wish to impose taxes; is ambitious to revise the system of taxation, but fears that the hostility of interests newly taxed may outweigh the gratitude of others relieved; and so it goes on granting the Minister a month's continuance at a time of previous rates, and with a chronic deficit is drifting on towards Niagara. The disorder of public finance is extending also to private. First, there is the gigantic speculation which has undertaken to control all the copper in the world, and now De Lesseps's Panama lottery scheme, which was steadily refused by the Ministry as long as there was a ministry, seems in a fair way of being passed by the Chambers, if it has not already been, and with some prospect of involving a guarantee on the part of the Government. The Boulanger craze does not necessarily mean war, but may merely express the desire of the country to see somebody

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at the head of the Government with the capacity to rule.

Coming now to this country, we find the Secretary of the Treasury in a legal position rather worse than that of the French Minister of Finance after defeat in a long conflict—that is to say, he has no power at all over financial policy, which is confessedly in the hands, not merely of one, but of two committees of the House of Representatives, not to speak of two others of the Senate. Setting apart the external circumstances, have we anything to boast of in financial management over the French Chambers? Not merely as to the tariff, but as to banking, currency, and silver, the financial problems are among the most important for the future of this country, while our machinery for handling them is about the worst that could be devised.

There is nothing whatever, except the greed of Congress for power, to prevent our having the benefits of the English method, with this additional advantage, that as the President is elected by the people, and as the Secretary of the Treasury is his chosen agent, that official would not even be as dependent upon Congress as the Chancellor of the Exchequer is upon Parliament, and would, with the President and the country behind him, stand in a relation to Congress very different from that which has ended in the complete prostration of the French Ministry. G. B.

Boston, April 28, 1888.

## THE STATE OF JAPAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article in the *Nation* of February 16, under the title of "Coercion in Japan," seems to me to do so much injustice to this country and its civilization that I am constrained, as a well-wisher of Japan who has gained some knowledge of her people by eight years of residence and constant intercourse, to ask the privilege of a few words upon the other side.

The occasion of the article, as your readers will remember, was the so-called "Law for the Preservation of Public Safety," the main point of which was the authority it gave to warn suspected persons off from the capital and put them under police surveillance. This certainly was a most extraordinary act, and it is not my purpose to defend it. Yet it must be said in justice upon the other side, that no one is in possession of the information which would show whether the law was necessary or not except the Government which promulgated it. Your statement that the law was applied to several hundred "children, boys, and men" would seem to any one who did not know Japan quite conclusive evidence of the enforcement of the law with most unnecessary harshness. But as a matter of fact the most dangerous class in Japan is its boys, even boys so young that without great inaccuracy they might be described as children. The advance in education has been so great that boys of fourteen or fifteen, who have been trained in the Government schools, are in most cases possessed of a good deal more knowledge of certain kinds than their parents. That they should be conceited, opinionated, and headstrong, goes without saying. Large numbers of the brightest of such boys are sent off at from fourteen to sixteen years of age to complete their education, usually in Tokio. Here they are possessed of an amount of liberty never thought of by young America in its wildest dreams. With a monthly allowance from their parents or friends, and absolute liberty in many or most cases to choose their own studies and their own schools, with all the Japanese boy's precocious interest in political and social questions, and extraordinary facility of speech, and with absolutely no ballast of experience or mature reflection, is it surprising if the Government has to look sharply after the "children and boys"?

But, passing by this, let us come to that general survey of the political state of Japan which forms the bulk of your article. And first for the general statement in your concluding paragraph—"The prospect of Japanese absolutism becoming a constitutional monarchy, or her people having any real share in the functions of government during this century, is now exceedingly remote." To which I reply, that the people of Japan already have a real share in the functions of government. For some years each prefecture has had a representative assembly, which absolutely controls all local (as distinct from imperial) taxation, and has full power to determine how the funds thus raised shall be used, subject, of course, to the general law of the empire. Appropriations for schools, roads, bridges, etc., are all made by these local assemblies. Six or seven years ago there was a good deal of dispute between the various prefects or governors and these assemblies over the annual appropriations. All these disputes have been quieted by the logic of events, which has shown clearly that in such matters the real power was in the hands of the people, and the prefects, in making their annual estimates, must calculate not what they would like to have, but what they are likely to get.

Besides these prefectural assemblies, there are councils having analogous powers in towns and villages. The property qualification for voters in the election of members of the former is the payment of a tax on real estate of $5 per annum; in the case of the village and town councils it is considerably less. That the movement is still in the same direction is shown by the fact that there are now measures pending in the Senate, and likely to be carried through, giving increased privileges of self-government to cities and making the mayors of towns and villages elective.

Another straw showing the movement of the current is shown in a case now pending in the Superior Court of this city. An election to fill a vacancy in the Assembly of a recent prefecture was recently held. Party spirit ran high. The sub-prefect who had the counting of the votes was of the minority party, and, if report be true, threw out, on the ground of mistake in the writing of a name, votes enough to elect his candidate, and reported to the prefect accordingly. The prefect accepted his report and declared his candidate elected. For this he has been indicted at the instance of the opposite party, and, appointee of the central Government though he is, must now stand his trial in the ordinary courts of law, for accepting and giving effect to the report of his subordinate. This is but one of many indications that the power of popular government as already established in Japan is growing stronger day by day.

What the new Parliament will be no one can yet say. That it will not be a mere sham is pretty evident from what has been already done. That it will wield from the start such power as that of the British Parliament is highly improbable, and also, it seems to me, highly undesirable. Surely no true friend of Japan can deliberately wish that her people should attain at one leap to liberties which it has taken the English race centuries to acquire and to learn how to use. If all that is acquired in 1890 is a parliament after the Prussian model, that surely ought to be enough for one year; and so much, added to what is gone before, of fulfilment of the Mikado's promise to form a government founded upon public opinion, should acquit Count Ito and his subordinates in the Cabinet of accusations of "rank treachery," or of "turning the imperial oath into perjury."

Passing by such an error of detail as that the present leaders of the Government have been "busy for years in crushing three great rebellions" (the only great rebellion was that of Saigō in 1877, crushed in nine months, the next in importance being only great enough to cost the people of Japan three cents apiece to put down), and passing to the representation in your article of the present political condition of this country, there is a curious air of anachronism about it, as if the article had been written by some one who had been in Japan fifteen or twenty years ago, and, while keeping up more or less since with the general course of outward events, had entirely failed to realize the immense change in spirit which these years have brought. Assassination or beheading may be the "Asiatic method of asking for the resignation of obnoxious Cabinet officers," but it is certainly not the method now or lately in vogue in Japan. Of recent Ministers of State, Kuroda, in 1882 or thereabouts, and Inouye, in 1887, were driven from office by popular opinion—the former for alleged corruption, the latter for too great concessions to foreign Powers in the negotiations for treaty revision; but neither has met with any tragical fate. Okuma, Itagaki, Tani, and Soyeshima are names of some who have quietly withdrawn because of disagreement with the party in power, Okuma and Itagaki becoming leaders respectively of the moderate and advanced Liberals. There has been no instance of a Cabinet Minister beheaded since the revolution which established the Mikado's Government in 1868, and no beheading of anybody since that form of punishment was abolished in 1873. Capital punishment in any form is now reserved for cases of high treason, murder, and sometimes arson, and can be inflicted in no case whatever except by due process of law, through the agency of the courts, as is the case also with all punishment for felony. A good instance (one out of many) of the absence of blood-thirstiness in the treatment of political offenders is Mr. Mutsu. He was convicted of complicity in Saigō's rebellion, condemned to five years' imprisonment, released at the end of two years and a half, in eighteen months more put into office, and now goes to represent his country as Minister at Washington.

As for removal of ministers by assassination, there were three cases in the years immediately succeeding the revolution of 1868. But these are in no sense indicative of the present condition of the country. Since then there has been an attempt on the life of Iwakura in 1874, and the assassination of Okubo in 1878, and that is all—not enough, surely, to give occasion for any special airs of superiority on the part of a country which has lost two Presidents by assassination in twenty-three years.

For other points in your article: the heavy taxation is hardly to be avoided in a country which has had to provide itself *ab initio* with the appliances of modern civilization. The refusal of foreign Powers to allow Japan to levy any but nominal import duties makes the burden heavier by placing it all upon domestic products. It is true that a good many millions are spent on the army and navy, but is not that excusable in a country which has

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at her back Russia, to whom Yezo would be so great a prize? It is true, also, that the general Government spends comparatively little on education, but then it must be remembered that all primary, secondary, and normal schools, with a number of medical schools besides, are supported by the local authorities, and that the school system so supported compares favorably with that of the most advanced nations.

Surveying the whole field, I cannot see that there would be any special danger in at once placing American citizens here under Japanese law. For my own part, I would far rather be under the jurisdiction of the courts of Japan than those of a good many countries in which we make no claim of extra-territorial jurisdiction.—Respectfully yours, T. S. Tyng.

Osaka, Japan, March 27, 1888.

## VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND THEIR NEEDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Each summer the wealth and culture of our cities are brought in contact with the class who have always been the bone and sinew of this as well as of every other land. It has been and is our opportunity. How are we using it? What do we leave behind us besides our money? In a few instances the duty has been recognized to the extent of adding a few books to the village library or of raising a subscription for the clergyman or his wife. Should it stop here?

This is not an appeal for almsgiving, nor for the founding of an institution. It is an appeal to the thoughtful to devise means by which the energies of the people can be so directed that, while the families preserve their individuality and dwell apart, the members of each family may have more reward for their labor, and attainable objects for their ambition.

Fifty years ago there was less difference than now between the farmer's son and the merchant's or banker's son, both in facilities for training their faculties and in the opportunities for exercising their powers when trained. As towns grow into cities, educational advantages increase, but so also does the cost of living. The farmer's dollar comes no faster than it used to come, but it used to go further in getting board for the son or daughter who came to the schools or colleges of our towns. In a letter of Mr. Longfellow's, dated February 7, 1825, he estimates his expenses for a proposed post-graduate course at Harvard thus: "The only charge is $1 per quarter for the use of the library. Room rent is from $30 to $50 per year, and board from $2 to $3 per week. The expenses for one year will not be very great—$184 I suppose to be about a fair calculation" (vol. i, p. 59). Now President Eliot puts from $500 to $800 a year as the lowest estimate of necessary expenses at the same college. Is not this a reason why foundations or scholarships or prizes should be established in country districts, to be competed for by the children of the schools, and which, when gained, should enable the possessor to choose a higher school or college wherein to carry on his education? Let the prize be a stated sum paid quarterly, through a year or two or three, and let the one who earns it choose the place where he is to spend it. There is no degradation in receiving aid that has been already won by effort, and the effort once made is the best assurance that it will be made again. Scholarships in colleges are good, no doubt, but the young men would better earn them by what they have already done in schools than by what they promise or hope to do if they are given the opportunity. In England there seem to be a number of these foundations.

Education does not, however, solve all problems. A dozen years spent in a small rural community enables the writer to assert confidently that more handicrafts of the lighter sort are greatly needed. The gain would be very great if the element of beauty could also be added to the employment. Life is very monotonous in a village, and there are but few ways of gratifying the artistic instinct, which of late has been over-stimulated in both town and country without being wisely guided in either. Is there no one of leisure and of taste in our cities who yet retains enough practical knowledge of men and of affairs to come forward with a well-thought-out scheme for employing the energies of the family without removing the individual members from the household? Among the mountains of New Hampshire the women still spin and weave the wool taken from the sheep that have been raised on the hillsides. Can they not be instructed in the combination of colors, or in the producing of dyes that may make their cloth both more attractive and more salable than it now is? Will not young women aid in the work by wearing in the villages the cloth that has been produced there?

Might not schools or classes for the instruction of men and boys in woodcarving be established? Give them models to train their eyes, and tell them what is wanted in the hand-carved woodwork of our houses. Let them cut the timber from their own farms and work it in their own barns. The water that runs down the mountain can take the place of steam, when power is needed to reduce the log to the needed shape. A few lectures on the time of cutting down the tree and the seasoning of the wood, some object lessons in carving, and an assured market for the result of their labor, ought very soon to turn a whittling Yankee into a prosperous artisan in the working of wood. A traditional chamois perched on an impossible rock might not be attained for years, but many of us would be content to wait æons for it if we were assured that a more useful and practical industry were arising among our forests.

There is one mode of increasing the income of the inhabitants of the mountains that I protest against. It hurts my pride as an American to see a child of parents who have been born on the soil, hold out a few miserable apples in one hand and a cap in the other to receive an alms, or to have the gate opened for a guerdon, when one drives through the farm, by a child who ceases to watch for one's return if the guerdon has been paid. The right of a farmer to receive compensation for a way through his fields to a view point, should be recognized; but let him keep his road in order, and exact a fair and fixed toll at the entrance, instead of turning his children into sharpers or beggars. Such training may be admirable for a future book agent or a peddler or a ward politician, but it was not in this way that Lincoln and Garfield fitted themselves to be statesmen and leaders and finally Presidents. M. N. S.

## EXTREMES MEET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the notice of Mr. Adolphus Trollope's Reminiscences that appeared lately in the *Nation*, your reviewer quotes a grim story of Garibaldi's saying—

"As for the priests, they ought all to be put to death without hesitation, and without delay. 'Rather a strong measure,' I venture to say. 'Not a bit too strong, not a bit,' he rejoined warmly. 'Do we not put assassins to death? And is not the man who murders your soul worse than the man who only kills your body?'"

It is pretty to notice, as Mr. Pepys might say, how exactly this argument of an advanced modernist coincides with the reasoning of the Angelical Doctor in his justification of the burning of heretics. This is the way St. Thomas Aquinas puts it in the *Summa 2da, 2dae, quaest*, xi, *art.* 3:

"Multo enim grauius est corrumpere fidem, per quam est animae vita, quam falsare pecuniam, per quam temporali vitae subuenitur. Unde si falsarii pecuniae vel alii malefactores statim per saeculares principes juste morti traduntur; multo magis haeretici statim, ex quo de haeresi convincuntur, possunt non solum excommunicari, sed et juste occidi."

H. W. Fay.

Westborough, Mass., April 27, 1888.

# Notes.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press 'Chemical Problems,' by Drs. Grabfield and Burns, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

W. S. Gottsberger will shortly publish 'Poems,' by Rose Terry Cooke; and 'From Lands of Exile,' from the French of "Pierre Loti," by Clara Bell.

The next of the American Commonwealths series published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be 'Missouri,' by Lucien Carr.

A History of Germany in two volumes, octavo, by Theodore S. Fay, formerly U. S. Minister to Switzerland, is about to be put to press by A. S. Barnes & Co.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'The Names of God in Holy Scripture,' by Andrew Jukes.

John Richard Green's 'Short History of the English People' has been translated into French by M. Auguste Monod, and will soon be published by Plon & Nourrit in two octavo volumes. M. Gabriel Monod, the editor of the *Revue Historique*, has written an introduction to the work, which is given in the *Revue Bleue* of April 7, under the title: "La France et l'Angleterre; leur développement historique, leur génie, et leurs institutions." This is a short and clear exposition of what M. Monod calls "the historical circumstances and material conditions" which have made of the two races, so similar in many of their original elements, nations now so different from each other in most of their characteristics and institutions.

Under the title of 'Civilization in the United States: First and Last Impressions of America,' Cupples & Hurd, Boston, have grouped in book form the late Matthew Arnold's estimate of Gen. Grant, based upon the latter's Autobiography; his "Word about America," and "Word More about America," and final "Civilization in the United States." The order, as will be observed, is not chronological, and the publishers have omitted to indicate when and where these several papers appeared, or to give the dates of Mr. Arnold's visits to this country. The collection, therefore, is not quite so fair to Mr. Arnold or so instructive to his readers as it might easily have been made.

What Mr. Robert Browning calls "the present and final edition" of his poetical works has begun to be issued by Macmillan & Co., in an unpretentious but well-printed and very handy form. The first volume contains "Pauline" and "Sordello," and, after twenty years' endurance of the former poem in its original crude and boyish state, Mr. Browning

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has felt justified in mending and strengthening its style. The type of this edition is admirably large and clear.

From the volume, 'A Comtist Lover, and Other Studies,' Elizabeth Rachel Chapman has extracted for separate publication her analysis of Tennyson's "In Memoriam" ('A Companion to In Memoriam.' Macmillan). We should ourselves be somewhat shy of joining in the "cordial reception" which the author tells us has been accorded to this prose argument. A test of her capacity for the task may, we think, be found in her selecting from the stanzas, "Ring out, wild bells," the "grieving overmuch for those gone before" as the chief evil to be rung out with the dying year.

We praised last year, and are glad to praise again, the well-devised 'Vacation Journal: a Diary of Outings from May until November, with Hints and Information for Tourists' (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.). It is a pretty and a useful volume for pocket or satchel, with poetical extracts for each day, names and addresses, botanical descriptions, tennis laws, etc. Under June we notice that a stanza from the "Ancient Mariner" is ascribed to Whittier.

'Walks in Paris' and 'Days Near Paris' (New York: George Routledge & Sons) are two more of those semi-literary guide-books with which the name of Augustus J. C. Hare is associated. They are pleasantly written, and give a quantity of useful and interesting information and a large amount of more or less apposite and more or less edifying quotation. The illustrations, from the author's own sketches, are pretty and truthful. It is to be regretted that there is no indication of the date of writing. In matters such as the arrangement of works of art in the great galleries this is of importance. To an old haunter of the Louvre the arrangement of the pictures as given by Mr. Hare sometimes seems unfamiliar, and one asks one's self in vain whether his description is that of an earlier or of a later arrangement than the one remembered. In one instance Mr. Hare is certainly out of date. The magnificent "Victory of Samothrace" is no longer in the Salle des Cariatides; it is now some years since, with the addition of the wings and other fragments, it was set upon its original prow-shaped pedestal at the head of one of the grand staircases, where its effect is indescribably impressive. Mr. Hare's selection of works of art for mention is of the usual guide-book kind, and it is natural that one should find Murillo's trivial "Immaculate Conception" marked with the conventional star, and followed by the conventional mention of its price; but how did it happen that there is no mention whatever of one of the supreme *chefs d'œuvre* of the collection, the "Antiope" of Correggio?

The fifty-fifth issue in "Morley's Universal Library" (Routledge) is W. M. Praed's 'Essays,' a first collected edition of this writer's prose. In the humbler series (in size and style of production only) likewise conducted by Prof. Morley, "Cassell's National Library," we can now enumerate Bishop Jewel's 'Apology of the Church of England,' Don Manoel Gonzales's 'London in 1731,' the first volume of Sir John Malcom's charming 'Sketches of Persia,' Spenser's 'Shepherds' Calendar,' with a comparison of Clement Marot's Eclogues of Pan and Robin; and Shakspere's "Much Ado About Nothing," with much helpful elucidation, including the well-known tale from Ariosto's 'Orlando Furioso.'

A school edition of "Much Ado About Nothing," with notes and a glossary, edited by K. Deighton (Macmillan), is on our table with other text-books hardly more than to be named at this time—a comely edition of Wordsworth's 'Prelude' (D. C. Heath & Co.), edited by Prof. A. J. George of Boston University; 'Atalanta's Race, and Other Tales from the Early Paradise by William Morris' (Ticknor & Co.), edited by Oscar Fay Adams and W. J. Rolfe, with notes, woodcuts, and a portrait; Scott's 'Lay of the Last Minstrel,' edited in Ginn & Co.'s series of "Classics for Children" by Mrs. Margaret Andrews Allen; Alexander E. Frye's 'The Child and Nature, or Geography Teaching with Sand Modelling' (Hyde Park, Mass.: Bay State Publishing Co.), a suggestive if in some ways a rather fantastic book; 'Geography of the British Isles,' by Archibald Geikie (Macmillan), a miniature school-book, useful on this side of the water principally as a supplement to our own geographies—poor enough, as a rule; and 'Erzählungen aus der Deutschen Geschichte, für Schule und Haus' (Henry Holt & Co.), by Josepha Schrakamp—judicious selections from standard German historians, with notes.

We gave a few months ago a review of the new and fine edition of Gillespie's 'Surveying,' published under the editorial supervision of Prof. Staley of the Cass School of Applied Science. Prof. Carhart, who fills the chair of Civil Engineering in the Western University of Pennsylvania, and his publishers (Ginn & Co.) seem to have thought that there was still room for another work at least in the department of "Plane Surveying." Certainly neither author nor publishers have spared any pains to produce a book worthy of the patronage of the profession. We notice two new features in the work. F. H. Robinson, C.E., formerly a colleague of Prof. Carhart, and now City Engineer of Wilmington, Del., contributes a chapter on city surveying. Chief-Justice Cooley of Michigan treats of the "Judicial Functions of Surveyors," in a chapter of great interest not only to the profession, but to the public at large. Justice Cooley, in very pleasant but very decided language, reminds surveyors that in surveying private property their duty is to find the old metes and bounds, not to establish new ones; and though a modern surveyor with his more refined methods may be able to demonstrate that an old surveyor a half century ago was considerably "out" in his courses and distances, yet, in a court of law, long and peaceful acquiescence is worth a great deal more than refined calculation. We have seldom seen a scientific book of which the make-up was more pleasing to the eye, or which promised to be more serviceable.

Prof. Kalogeras of Athens has just published (1887), for the first time, the Commentary of the Greek Father Euthymius Zigabenus (or Zygadenus), who died about A. D. 1118, on the Epistles. We have long had his valuable work on the Gospels, a copious but less helpful commentary on the Psalms, and some dogmatic and controversial works. The new publication, making 1,350 octavo pages, is a quite important addition, giving commentary upon all the Epistles of Paul and upon the seven General Epistles. The work is of much the same character as that on the Gospels, being largely founded on Chrysostom and his school, whose views are tersely and in general clearly stated, but giving also a good deal that appears to be original. The editor has laid the whole world of New Testament interpreters under obligations by issuing this carefully and clearly printed publication. Along with many honorary offices, as Archbishop, Professor of Theology in the University of Athens, etc., his chief task is to be tutor to the Greek Prince Constantine, to whom he addresses (in Greek) a copious and amusingly eulogistic dedication.

The most frequent subjects of the dramatic literature of the sixteenth century are the stories of Susanna, the Prodigal Son, and Joseph. Alexander von Weilen, in 'Der Aegyptische Joseph im Drama des xvi. Jahrhunderts,' records eight Latin and nineteen German plays, composed from 1534 to 1625, that are occupied with the legend of Joseph. Crocus, the Dutch Jesuit, published a play in 1536, which served in a measure as a model to the principal religious play writers of this period, the Alsatian Gart, Macropedius, and Voidius. The piece by Gart has within a short time been edited by Erich Schmidt. One curious play mentioned by Weilen has for title "Josephine vendu (*sic*) par ses sœurs."

From the Permanent Secretary of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Salem, Mass., we have the customary annual volume of Proceedings, recording the thirty-sixth meeting last August in this city. The address of Prof. E. S. Morse, the retiring President, is given in full, while the various papers read are usually summarized or simply indicated by title. There is a full list of all the meetings held by this peripatetic Association since September 20, 1848, and by its forerunner, the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider does a good service in his (Providence) *Book Notes* for April 28, by tracing the history of the suffrage in Rhode Island down to the recent revolutionary Constitutional Amendment. He points out that the qualification of the possession of ratable property proceeded from the King of England and not from the Colonial General Assembly; that it was retained in Dorr's People's Charter of 1842, and is now retained when the object of the vote is to impose a tax or for the expenditure of money. Mr. Rider prints side by side the new amendment and the corresponding sections from Dorr, and gives some curious facts concerning the latter's rough draft, now in the editor's possession. The adoption of the more liberal amendment is the avenging of Dorr. As illustrating the fraudulent voting engendered by the old restrictions on suffrage, Mr. Rider tells of the practice, on the part of political leaders, of dividing lots of land into pieces, and giving recorded deeds for them at each election to voters who used the deeds at the polls and immediately returned them for cancellation.

Some interesting tables, comparing the wages paid in France for certain classes of labor in 1853 with those paid in 1884, are given in the *Revue Scientifique* for April 7. In the whole country, exclusive of Paris, the wages "pour la petite industrie" have increased from 1 fr. 89 to 3 fr. 17, or an increase of nearly 66 per cent.; the wages of the women being about half that of the men. In Paris, for the same class of labor, 3 fr. 81 was paid in 1853, against 5 fr. 84 in 1884 for men, 2 fr. 12 at the former period and 2 fr. 90 at the latter for women—an increase of 53 and 37 per cent. respectively. The wages "pour la grande industrie" can only be compared for four years, and the changes have been slight. Women's wages in these classes have fallen in Paris from 2 fr. 67 to 2 fr. 58, but in the country they have risen from 1 fr. 76 to 1 fr. 79. The wages of engineers ("ouvriers chargés de la marche des moteurs") in Paris have increased from 5 fr. 61 to 5 fr. 71; in the departments from 3 fr. 96 to 4 fr. 04.

The principal article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April is Mr. J. Y. Buchanan's account of his explorations in the Gulf of Guinea. The article is illustrated by dia-

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grams and numerous tables showing the temperature of the water at different depths. The discussion of the Welle-Makua problem is continued by Mr. J. T. Wills. According to the *Mouvement Géographique*, this question has been finally settled by Capt. Van Gèle, an officer of the Congo Free State, who professes to have traced the Mobangi or Ubangi to a point where he was able to prove its identity with the Welle-Makua of Schweinfurth and Junker. This report, however, needs confirmation.

The April Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with a description of a 'Journey into the interior of Labrador' by Mr. R. F. Holme. Not only has this country never been explored, but very few white men have ever crossed it in either direction. Mr. Holme himself was unable to get more than 150 miles from the coast, on account of the failure of his provisions. The interior presents a sharp contrast to the coast both in appearance and climate. The barren, cold region of the seaboard ceases about twelve miles from the water, and a luxuriant forest growth begins, which extends over the whole country "with the exception of a few spots, chiefly towards the north, called 'barrens,'" which are the home of vast herds of cariboo. The inhabitants, exclusive of a few Europeans, are Esquimaux, who live entirely on the coast, and the Cree Indians, who inhabit the forests. These latter are probably the nearest approach to the original North American red man now existing, as they have little intercourse with the whites and are protected from the demoralization of drunkenness by stringent prohibitory liquor laws. In the summer about 30,000 fishermen are to be found on these coasts. Mr. Holme expresses deep regret at being obliged to turn back when within fifty miles of the Grand Falls, which he believes "in some respects to be the most stupendous falls in the world." The centre of Labrador is a plateau estimated to be nearly 2,500 feet above the sea level, and the waters of a chain of lakes fall, it is conjectured, the greater part of this height at a single leap. They have been seen, and that many years ago, by only two white men.

The Chinese Government is making strenuous exertions to promote tree culture, both with the hope of preventing droughts and the disastrous floods, and to check the wanton destruction of trees by which once fertile tracts are made barren. A proclamation has been issued in the Province of Chi-li, in which Peking is situated, giving "eight directions for tree plantation," in which are minute instructions as to the choice of trees and the methods of planting, and "ten benefits to be derived from the same" —from the sale of timber and fruits, the increase of the rainfall, the purification of the atmosphere, etc., and the furnishing of shade to travellers and families.

—Since English poets left off the habit of writing occasional Latin verses, there has been no instance of such highly artificial work as the character of Pope contributed by Austin Dobson to the current *Scribner's*. The lines are a clever imitation superficially; but if one thinks what Pope would have been capable of, with such a man to dissect as he himself was, Mr. Dobson's amiable epigrams grow vapid. Of course he does not mean to write in Pope's spirit, but with his manner—so much is to be said; yet this is a weak defence. How easy it is to write in Pope's manner, the poetasters who imitated him attest; and really, if one disregards the antiquated printing of these lines, and looks at them without dashes and italics and capitals, they are not much to be preferred to those perishable couplets a hundred years ago. They are no more like Pope than the Latinists were like Horace. Is it possible, too, that the band of bards to which Mr. Dobson belongs will remain for ever in ignorance that their mutual paying of compliments is, to the barbarians of the outer world, an inexpressibly comic trait of the coterie? Since Mr. Stevenson paid his tribute to Mr. Lang as him "of the brindled hair," one thinks they might begin to have an inkling that the Rabelais Club is the place for that sort of amusement. The essay which accompanies these verses is only a tolerable encyclopædia article; it is neither a study of character nor a criticism, and is without even that freshness of turn which is all the subject, thus treated, admits of. The remainder of the number is very excellent as a whole. Mr. Longfellow's paper on the decoration of Greek vases is full of valuable suggestions for the American artists who are interested in this form of ornamentation. The article upon modern explosives is well done, being comprehensive, definite, and interesting, and not too technical. Mr. Stimson's novel—the most notable serial now running—continues its curious intermixture of serious thought and light worldliness. The illustration of the number is especially to be praised.

—The anonymous contributor of the article on "The Anglo-American Copyright Question," in the *Westminster Review* for March, writes in a tone of grievance, due, it seems, to Mr. Brander Matthews's papers concerning "American Authors and British Pirates," published in the *New Princeton Review* for September, 1887, and January, 1888. The writer, after quoting several pages of the examples given by Mr. Matthews of the treatment of American authors by the piratical publishers of England (with no attempt, be it said to his credit, to palliate or excuse the wrongdoing of the latter), and admitting "that an author whose books are pirated, and, it may be, mutilated at the same time, suffers a serious injury," still considers that the hardships complained of are largely exaggerated. He also thinks that the difficulty, as well as the expense, encountered in securing a British copyright for the American author's work is overestimated. "The great majority of authors live in cities and large towns," he argues, "and most of the centres of population in the American Union are in the northern part of it; moreover, railway travelling in the United States is reasonably cheap," and as the stay in Canada need not exceed a few days at no great expense, the conclusion he arrives at is, "that the number of American authors who are debarred from obtaining a British copyright by their inability to bear the cost of doing so, must be very small."

—It is difficult, doubtless, for an Englishman to realize that a trip to the nearest point in Canada from Washington or St. Louis, or any other place as far South, would cost quite as much in time and money as a journey from London to some city in Germany, and would involve more discomfort, with little compensation by the way. We fancy that a proposal to require such a journey upon the part of an English author for each book he might desire to copyright in Germany would not be viewed with complacency. It should not be overlooked, moreover, as it seems to be in this case, that it is not only this expensive and irksome journey which is required of the American author, but that he shall have a reputation sufficiently well established to enable him to secure a publisher for his work in London as well as one in the United States. The possibility of securing some sort of English copyright for his book by going to Canada, and the enjoyment by the American author—together with the other citizens of the United States—of the works of European writers at the low prices made possible by piracy, "far outweigh," says this writer, "any pecuniary loss or literary mutilation he may suffer at the hands of the 'British pirate.'" When the American author, upon bringing his book to a publisher, learns that he must expect the sale of only a limited number of copies, because the latter has already supplied the popular demand by reprinting a similar work (which he had for the taking) by some celebrated English author, he is not likely to find consolation in the fact that he, like other American readers (who might possibly have been *his* readers), may secure a copy of his rival's book at a trifling price. Nor do we think that even the knowledge that he can obtain protection in England for his book will lead him to agree with this writer that "American authors are the most fortunate authors in the world."

—The volume of the Archives of Maryland published before the close of last year covers the period from 1667 to 1689 inclusive. The large gap in the Proceedings of the Council of Maryland has been supplied by documents from the Public Record Office, London, of great value and interest. The regulation of intercourse with the Nanticoke Indians, who were a source both of fear and of annoyance through the border ruffianism of the lower whites, is twice confirmed in this volume by treaties with their "Emperor." In each instance they were bound to deliver up runaway apprentices and slaves. The old habit of "not talking turkey" to the Indian is reflected in the phraseology relating to the treaty of 1687, with its supplementary article, "that if any Indian commits an offence against the English he should be tried by the English law, and if an Englishman commit an offence against an Indian he should be tried by the same law." Noteworthy in 1676 are the somewhat excessive "Queryes about Maryland" of the Lords of the Committee of Trade and Plantations, and the far from categorical replies of Lord Baltimore, in which occurs a curious passage concerning a question already raised in these Archives, viz., the baptism of negroes. Maryland, he says, had been infected with the notion prevailing in other colonies that baptism meant manumission, "to the Dammage of the Masters and Owners as if their said servants were actually Dead." Hence a law was made to encourage baptisms by pointing out that in England formerly villeins got no such benefit as enfranchisement from the rite—with good effect, "all Masters generally since the makeing of this Lawe haveing beene willing to Instruct those kynde of Servants in the ffayth of Christ and to bring them to desyre and receive Baptisme."

—Calvert's answer to the twenty-third and twenty-fourth inquiries was, "that the greatest Obstruction of the Trade of this Provynce is what the late Acts of Parliament made in England for Navigation have occasioned, the removeing of which is not to be expected untill it be for the Interest of England to remove them." He was himself shortly brought up against these Acts in connection with the duty on tobacco, and made to eat humble pie by reinstating as Collector of Customs one Christopher Rousby, who got off to England and lodged complaint against Baltimore, carrying a very high head, and saying of charges of immorality against himself, that "it is a way of writing made easy to his Lo'p by his practise, . . . though his Lo'p have no cause or

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ground for the same but hopes that casting much Dirt some might stick to work his ends against us." Rousby went back and was murdered by Col. George Talbot. A sample of the fetters of the Navigation Acts is given on page 447. A good deal of light is thrown upon Claiborne's trading venture and settlement on the contested Isle of Kent, and upon Capt. Josias Fendall's sedition trial; much, too, on the early boundary dispute with William Penn. In connection with depositions favorable to Claiborne, we meet with the name of William Blizard; and still odder is that of Alexander D'hynoyossa, who so far forgot his lineage as to stab "with a knife Mr. Wells in the belly." Historic is the name of Michael Taney, gent., in 1687 high sheriff of Calvert County. As he is indexed by the editors for page 502, we conclude that the "Nich. Taney" of Calvert County therein mentioned is a typographical or clerical error for Michael. We read in 1681 of "Clark of the Councill John Llewellin (who writes shorthand)," and the Fendall trial is a good example of reporting, whoever did it. The antiquarian humor of this volume is not great, but here and there one smiles at a turn of expression like this: "They said they would be att Palmers Island by that tyme corne was halfe legg high"; or this, of a ship surveyed for seaworthiness, and found to have "suffered much wrong by the worms of this Country both in the Keele," etc.

—Among recent American contributions to the promotion of historical study, the 'Brief Institutes of General History,' by Prof. E. B. Andrews of Brown University, deserves especial commendation (Boston: Silver, Rogers & Co.). It is not a text-book in the common sense of the term, but rather a handbook for the teacher or somewhat advanced student. The plan is one that is more familiar to German than to American readers. The book consists of eleven chapters—one introductory, on the nature, science, and philosophy of history, and the ten following on as many periods or general topics; for example, the Old East, the Classical Period, the Mediæval Roman Empire of the West, Renaissance and Reformation, Prussia and the New Empire. Each chapter is furnished with a very judiciously selected bibliography, and each section of the chapters with special references to the best sources of information. These sections consist of text and notes. The text is somewhat similar in character to the German *dictata*, *e. g.*, Droysen's 'Historik,' or, in other words, to the main propositions of a lecture; the notes, on the other hand, comprise much valuable illustrative and statistical matter, such as exact dates, strength of military forces, summaries of noteworthy special investigations on contested points. A companion volume, which we have not seen, is devoted to English and American constitutional history. We feel no hesitation in warmly commending Prof. Andrews's book to teachers and students. It bears on every page the stamp of careful research and vigorous thinking.

—The new interest in the Scandinavian discovery of America has manifested itself in two characteristic books, which are at variance with each other, while both are permeated with the most vagrant sort of an unhistorical spirit. That of Miss Marie A. Brown, which in the present issue bears her own imprint at Boston, and is called 'The Icelandic Discoverers of America,' may be dismissed as the creation of an almost disordered mind, for in its captiousness it obscures the essential elements of the whole question. The other, in its wealth of cartographical adornment and sumptuousness of page, will carry the name of Eben Norton Horsford, as the author of the 'Discovery of America by Northmen,' wherever these adventitious aids can find for it acceptance in the libraries of the world, as seeming to express the results of American scholarship. Unfortunately, the American scholar has nothing to do with this manifestation in his behalf. The question which is dealt with is not a very complex one. Did the Northmen, having passed from Scandinavia to Iceland, thence to Greenland, hesitate to push their adventurous vessels further, and did they accordingly cross Davis's Straits, and pass on down the coasts of North America? There is only an occasional dissenter, among historical students, from the affirmative of this proposition; but when it comes to the identification of localities, to determining where the Northmen picked grapes, where they beached a ship, where they built a booth, and where they buried a companion, the trained student, accustomed to deal with historical evidence, finds the details of the sagas too susceptible of a varied interpretation to feel any confidence in decisive judgment. It is those who make no hesitation at perversion, and ignore everything that does not serve their purpose, who find clearness in obscurity, and decisiveness everywhere. If historical problems are to be settled thus, there is no need of training the judgment. Every historical subject, in some stage of its progress through the ages, passes similar ordeals. Searchers of historical libraries find here and there on their shelves not a few of just such over-confident determinations. Such questions as the Northwestern Passage and the Straits of Anian have always invited this audacious kind of inquiry. Then as now there were over-confident views, and the spending of money in quarto editions. The resulting books are more significant at present in the study of psychology than in the elucidation of the problem to which they were addressed.

—Macmillan & Co. send us two new elementary text-books on Physics. The one, 'Outlines of Natural Philosophy for Schools and General Readers,' is by Prof. Everett of Queen's College, Belfast, the author of the work on 'Units and Physical Constants,' which was first published by the Physical Society of London, and which is indispensable to every teacher of physics. Everything from the pen of so distinguished a physicist as Prof. Everett is worthy of respectful consideration; but as a text-book for beginners, we think some of our American works are superior to the 'Outlines,' and as a general reading-book we should prefer the elementary treatise of the late Prof. Stewart. The book is very handsomely got up, contains more than two hundred illustrations, and contains no mathematical formulæ whatever. The other book is the first volume of an abridgment of the 'Practical Physics' of Stewart and Gee made by the authors. The first two volumes of the latter work were recently reviewed in our columns, and nearly everything said in that review is applicable to the present volume, which, in an abridged and condensed form, covers the same ground, viz., the processes of physical measurement and experiments in electricity and magnetism. Teachers in such educational institutions as possess the necessary apparatus will find here a course of experiments probably quite as extensive as they will desire. There are two or three interesting points about the book. The frontispiece consists of two parallel scales in close proximity, so that they are easily comparable, the one inches and their subdivisions in halves, quarters, and eighths, the other centimetres and their subdivisions in millimetres. As paper contracts slightly with age, such scales cannot be depended upon for absolute accuracy, but when, as in this case, they are both printed on the same leaf, their relations to each other remain the same, and their utility for purposes of comparison remains unaffected by the contraction. Another very interesting point is the representation, by three full-page plates, of the ground plan and fixtures of the physical laboratories of three of the principal English schools, the Manchester and the Hulme grammar schools, and the Blairlodge school at Polmont. These are accompanied by the necessary explanations, and should be of service to such institutions in this country as are so fortunate as to possess the means of adding a laboratory to their other aids to instruction. A third point is a "Price List of Apparatus and Materials" for fitting up a laboratory. The prices in England are, of course, of little use as guides in this country, but the list of articles is of interest to every one engaged in making physical experiments.

## THE WAGNER-LISZT CORRESPONDENCE.

*Briefwechsel zwischen Wagner und Liszt*, 1841-1861. 2 vols. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 1887.

It has long been known that Wagner's most intimate and influential friend, before the King of Bavaria extended his patronage to him, was Franz Liszt; but it remained for the publication of the private correspondence between the two composers to reveal the full significance of Liszt's services. Without King Ludwig the Bayreuth Festival could never have been given; but without Liszt's material assistance and spiritual encouragement it is doubtful if the Nibelung Trilogy would ever have been composed. It would be impossible to find, even in the ancient classical era of friendship, an example of more absolute and ardent devotion than in the attachment between Wagner and Liszt. Wagner himself compares it to the intimacy of Goethe and Schiller, in a letter dated 1856: "I have found much to edify me in the Goethe-Schiller correspondence; it put me in mind of our own relations, and suggested the precious results which might spring from them under more favorable conditions." It cannot be said that this correspondence is of such *varied* interest as that of Schiller and Goethe; but within its own sphere it is as fascinating and of as great biographic value as any collection of letters ever published. The letters are arranged according to their dates, each one being followed by its answer, although in not a few cases the answer is absent, having either been lost or suppressed by Wagner's widow, who is supposed to have edited the collection. It is not known whether another volume is to follow. Material for such no doubt exists; for although there was a temporary estrangement between the two great musicians, they subsequently became as intimate as ever.

Wagner's letters are not only more numerous but much longer than Liszt's, making up at least two-thirds of the two volumes. At first they are infrequent and formal; but the "Honored sir" and "Sie" are soon exchanged for the cordial "Dearest friend" and "Du"; and finally it becomes "Dein deinster Liszt." In 1849 Wagner wishes to thank Liszt for being the first conductor who had thought fit to produce his "Tannhäuser," after it had been neglected for four years following its first performance. This friendly deed, he adds, was the more agreeable to him because the intendant of the Dresden theatre had just conducted himself with such insulting insolence towards

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him that he had been on the point of giving up a position and an art which subjected him to such indignities. In reply, Liszt gives rapturous expression to his admiration for "Tannhäuser," and adds: "Once for all, count me among your most ardent and devoted admirers; depend upon me, and dispose of my services." And never has a promise been more nobly kept. Liszt does not often dwell in his letters on his personal annoyances and drudgeries, but there is enough to show that his life was not such a bed of roses as it is commonly supposed to have been, and as it doubtless was while he celebrated his triumphs as a pianist in every European capital. But when he assumed the functions of an operatic conductor and composer at Weimar, the petty troubles of public life did not spare him. Even his income was hardly more than sufficient for himself and family. Nevertheless, he was always ready to extend a helping hand to Wagner, who was constantly in want of money and had no one to appeal to but Liszt. Liszt gave him part of his own slender income, and exerted his influence in getting contributions from aristocratic and other patrons of art.

Wagner has been censured for the persistency of his pecuniary appeals to Liszt; but there was really nothing else for him to do, except to give up composing, which Liszt would never have permitted him to do. The circumstances under which Wagner lived must be taken into account. He was a political exile from Germany, where alone he could have made a living by utilizing his accomplishments as a conductor; and the Saxon authorities went so far in their persecution of him as to throw impediments in the way of his going even to Italy or France as late as ten years after his flight. His only source of income was from the sale of his early works to various German opera-houses; but for these he received very small sums—twenty to thirty Louis d'or for each—and the *tantièmes* did not amount to much, as the operas were but rarely performed at first. The very uncertainty of this source of income tormented Wagner. It was, as he complained, too much like a lottery; and the constant worry as to whether he should have anything to eat tomorrow for his wife and himself tended to destroy that mood of happy artistic exaltation in which alone he could compose. The work he was engaged in—the composing of the gigantic Trilogy—was *the most impractical thing he could possibly have done.* It took years and years to complete it, and after it was completed years and years would elapse before its performance would yield any revenue. There is a passage in letter 57 which indicates that it was simply financial embarrassment that compelled him to give up "Siegfried" in 1851, and begin to compose "Tristan," which, being a separate work, could be more readily produced, and might therefore put some money in his purse. Wagner's contemporaries can hardly feel proud when they read that while he was composing "Tristan" he was at one time compelled to pawn his valuables, including his watch, and this ten years after his "Rienzi" had been heard and admired. His frequent depression of spirits in consequence of this wretched state of affairs, and of the slow progress of his works, may be inferred from the fact that there are half-a-dozen letters in which he declares his intention to commit suicide. His one desire, he insists, is "to work, to write operas—that is the only thing I am good for"; and all he asked of the world in return was money enough to defray his household expenses: "I cannot live like a dog, cannot make my bed on straw, and seek pleasure in bad liquor. I must have some appreciation if I am to succeed in the arduous work of creating a new world." "Great heavens, such sums as I might *earn* (!!) in America [whence he had received some offers], people ought to present to me, without asking in return anything except what I am now doing, and which is the best thing I can do."

If these facts are borne in mind, Wagner's constant appeals for pecuniary aid appear in their proper light. He knew very well that managers and publishers would some day reap fortunes from his operas; and there was, therefore, nothing Utopian or impertinent in his demand that they should buy him a house and enable him to secure the leisure for creating the works that were to enrich them. There is nothing "small" or contemptible in such an attitude, but there is something very small and contemptible in the attempts of Dr. Hanslick and other German reviewers because of it to besmirch Wagner's character. It was no one's affair, anyway, but Liszt's, and Liszt was only too happy to do everything in his power for his exiled friend, who was compelled, by the very nature of his profession, to do work from which he could expect no immediate return. "Davison told me the other day," writes Liszt, "that the profits of his recent Berlin season sufficed to buy a villa near Dresden. In comparison, you ought by right to be able to buy all Zürich, besides the seven electorates and the lake, with your scores!" Had it not been for Liszt, even the one regular source of income which Wagner had—the percentage on the receipts from his operas—would have been much smaller. For Liszt was not only the first who produced "Tannhäuser" and "Lohengrin" with a conscientious regard for the composer's intentions ("selon le bon plaisir de l'auteur," as he says), and thereby paved the way for these works at other opera-houses, but he wrote enthusiastic essays on them, and, in the absence of Wagner, made arrangements for having his operas produced in various cities. He was even willing to go to Berlin and superintend the rehearsals of "Tannhäuser"; but, owing to the stupidity of Intendant Hülsen, his services were refused. Wagner fully realized the importance of Liszt's services in these matters. "Without you I should now be completely forgotten," he wrote in 1851.

It was a terrible trial for Wagner not to be able to visit his friend and share in his labors in breaking ground for the new school. For eight years he heard none of his own operas, and one of the most pathetic letters in this collection is one in which he asks Liszt whether it would be advisable for him to come to Weimar in disguise and attend a performance of "Lohengrin." Liszt seriously advised him not to risk it; and all that remained therefore for Wagner was to take part in a musical festival in Switzerland, of which he accepted the direction merely, as he confessed to Liszt, in order to get an opportunity to hear at least a few fragments from "Lohengrin." In another letter he complains that the inability to hear his own operas acted as a damper on his creative impulses, and made it difficult for him to continue at work. One of the chief services of Liszt lay in this, that he sustained his friend's flagging spirits by occasional messages of unbounded admiration, and by playing from Wagner's scores on the few occasions when he was able to visit him. Wagner had little execution as pianist, and it was therefore always a feast to him to have Liszt play his scores in his own inimitable way. Thus, in 1855, he writes regarding the "Walküre": "The completion of this work (the most tragic I have ever composed) will require much labor, and I must seek to recompense myself by means of exalting impressions for the energies I have expended. In this you alone can help me. The idea of going through this work, too, with you is the only compensation I expect from it. I myself am quite unable to do anything with it on the piano in such a way as to get any benefit from it." And in July, 1856, he writes:

"Franz, I have a divine idea! *You must get me an Érard piano!* Write to the widow. Tell her that you visit me every year three (!) times, and that you *must* have a better piano than my dilapidated one. Tell her a hundred thousand fables; say that it is a point of honor for her to have an Érard piano in my house. In short, don't reflect about the matter, but go to work with inspired impudence *(unverschämt genial)! I must have an Érard.* If they refuse to give me one as a present, I want to get it on credit, with a yard-long instalment."

In the next letter we see why he was so eager to get the Érard: "Tell Mme. Érard to send me a grand at once. I will pay 500 francs on it every year. No doubts! *I must have it when you visit me!*" It was the eagerness to hear some of his own latest music at least on a good piano, since orchestras were inaccessible to him.

No less encouragement and pleasure than by playing his scores, Liszt gave him by the admiring remarks on his compositions with which he seasoned many of his letters. "Your 'Lohengrin,'" he writes in 1850, "is a sublime work from beginning to end. Many, many passages have pressed tears from my heart." And eight years later: "I cannot tell you how deeply the work affects me every time. When I conducted it the last time, I felt proud of my century for possessing such an artist as you revealed yourself in this work! With 'Lohengrin' the old operatic world comes to an end. The spirit moves on the waters, and there is light." Liszt was the first who had the privilege of seeing the score of "Lohengrin," and to him it is dedicated. The same privilege was accorded him in the case of "Rheingold," "Walküre," and "Tristan." "How I must thank you, dearest, only one, for sending me the scores of 'Rheingold' and 'Walküre.' They exert on me the fabulous attractiveness of the mountain of magnet which irresistibly attracts ships and mariners," he writes in 1856. And two years later: "What a heavenly Christmas gift Härtel has sent me! All the children in the world, with Christmas trees adorned with golden fruits and lovely presents, cannot experience as much joy as I alone derived from your unique 'Tristan. Away with all cares and troubles of the humdrum world! Here is something again to weep over and flare up in enthusiasm. What ravishing magic! What an incredible wealth of beauty in this flaming love potion! What must have been your feelings when you conceived and composed this wonderful work!"

Such rapturous expressions are now the order of the day, but that Liszt wrote them almost forty years ago shows that his genius was great enough to appreciate Wagner's, even before his creations had presented themselves in their engaging instrumental garb. And Liszt had the courage to repeat these rapturous opinions in his published essays, whereby he greatly quickened the growth of Wagner's popularity. The effect which his essay on "Lohengrin" had on Wagner is illustrated in this remarkable extract (I., 122):

"It is difficult to describe to you the impression which at this particular moment your latest act of friendship has made on me! I had again become cold and suspicious regarding myself, and the thought of undertaking a new work of art aroused in me hardly anything but derisive contempt. The artistic misery far and near is so great, my spirits so depressed, that just now the only thing I could do was to laugh at myself when I thought, for instance, of the execution of my 'Siegfried,' and this mood I

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transferred to all my work. A few days ago I turned the leaves of my 'Lohengrin' score; it inspired in me positive disgust, and my occasional outbursts of laughter were not of an encouraging nature. Now once more you approached me, and impressed, delighted, and inspired me to such enthusiasm that I was dissolved in tears, and suddenly felt again that *there is no pleasure more voluptuous than that* of being an artist and creating works of art. It is indescribable, the effect you have produced on me."

After reading Liszt's appreciative essay on the "Flying Dutchman," Wagner writes (1854): "Who has understood me? YOU—and no one else! and who now understands YOU? *I*, and no one else! Be assured of that." And this brings us to the other side of the question. Did Wagner reciprocate Liszt's admiration of his music? An attempt has been made to show that he did not. But if his essay on Liszt's Symphonic Poems did not suffice to contradict this notion, the present letters would completely refute it. Thus, on p. 128, vol. ii., we read:

"In the month of May, so abominable for me, I have not been able to do more than look through your six scores with dimmed vision; but even thus I received the electric shock which the great produces on us, and one thing I know, that you are a wonderful man, to whom I can in no respect find a parallel in art and life. So great an impression did your conceptions and the general outlines of your execution make on me that I was eager to see more from you at once—the three other numbers, 'Faust' and 'Dante.'"

On the next page is a most remarkable analysis of Liszt's musical individuality, which is too long to quote, but which ends with this sentence: "So your orchestral compositions may be regarded as a monumental embodiment of your personal art, and herein they are so new and incomparable that the critics will require a long time to find out what to make of them." In a postscript he adds:

"But how terribly beautiful your 'Mazeppa' is: I was quite out of breath when I had read it through the first time! I felt sorry, too, for the poor horse: how terrible is nature and the world!" Again: "Every day I read one or the other of your scores, very much as I should read a poem, easily and without impediment. Then I feel every time as if I had dived into a crystalline depth, there to be alone by myself, leaving all the world behind, and living my own real life for an hour. Refreshed and invigorated, I then reappear on the surface, to long for your personal presence. Yes, my friend, *you have the power! Du kannst es!*" And once more: "The sonata is beautiful beyond all conception; grand, lovely, deep, and noble—sublime like yourself. I am most profoundly moved by it, and all my London *misère* is forgotten."

It is by no means as well known as it should be that Liszt was one of the most brilliant men of letters of his time. His musical essays, which have only recently been collected into a complete edition, contain a marvellous wealth of ideas and suggestions, and display a most exuberant imagination and mastery of style. Moreover, hardly any writer on music had like himself what is considered the highest critical gift—the art of reproducing the emotions of the art work discussed by him. To this Wagner alludes in one of his letters (i, 166): "Your style must be incomprehensible to one who does not understand music; but the way in which you can reproduce in apt words the self-same emotions which music alone can excite in us, fills with delight every one who has had those feelings, but could find no words for them!" The perusal of Liszt's essay on "Tannhäuser" awoke again in Wagner a wish which he had previously expressed, that Liszt might compose poems for his own musical purposes; "You have all the endowments, as well as any one! Write your poems in French or Italian; in that very sphere you cannot but create something entirely new, bring about a great revolution." Unfortunately, Liszt never followed this advice, yet posterity will rank him not only among the greatest composers, but among the foremost literary men of his time.

We have noted a hundred other interesting passages in these letters, but our space is exhausted. Of special interest is Wagner's account of his experiences in London and Paris, and of inestimable importance the directions he gave Liszt regarding the proper performance of "Lohengrin," etc.—directions which every conductor and singer should read. English readers will soon have an opportunity of perusing the Wagner-Liszt correspondence in a translation on which Dr. F. Hueffer is at work.

## AGRICULTURE AND PRICES IN ENGLAND.

*A History of Agriculture and Prices in England*, from the year after the Oxford Parliament to the Commencement of the Continental War (1793). By James E. Thorold Rogers. Vols. V and VI (1583-1702). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1887.

IT is at once an easy and a pleasant task to bring to the notice of the reading public a new book from the pen of Professor Rogers. The reputation of the author as a careful investigator is so well established by what he has already done, that either praise or criticism seems out of place on the part of one who reviews his writings; the reviewer, therefore, may content himself with a simple statement of what is to be found in these new volumes.

But at the outset it may be well to say a word respecting the work as a whole, of which the two volumes lying before us form a part. It is now more than a quarter of a century since Professor Rogers began to collect data for a history of agriculture and prices in England. "Such labors as I have undertaken," he says in the preface to his first volume, "are essential to that economical interpretation of history which, I venture on asserting, is as important an aid towards the comprehension of the past as the study of legal antiquities, of diplomatic intrigues, or of military campaigns." The work when completed will comprise eight volumes, and present an authoritative history of English prices from 1259 to 1793. Why, it may be asked, should the investigation be arrested with the year 1793? That, we reply, is the date at which the monumental work of Thomas Tooke begins, which, together with the two volumes added by Mr. Newmarch, brings the history of prices down to 1856. We may in this manner come to appreciate the importance and scope of Professor Rogers's work. The economic literature of no other people contains a complete history of prices from the thirteenth century to the present time, and, according to our author, "there is no European country, except England, the archives of which could supply satisfactory evidences of prices." It is impossible, in these days when economic study is turning largely in the direction of economic history, to overestimate the importance of so complete a record of prices covering six centuries of time.

The fifth and sixth volumes of this work, which have just appeared, trace the industrial development of England from the middle of Elizabeth's reign to the beginning of the reign of Queen Anne. This is perhaps the most important period in the growth of the English nation—at least no period has received greater attention at the hands of historians. And yet, notwithstanding all that has been written, the industrial forces which gave character to the seventeenth century have never been adequately portrayed. Nor can we say that this is accomplished by Professor Rogers. He has not attempted to give a picture of English industrial life, but rather to supply the material from which such a picture may be drawn. There is little of interest in the mass of facts presented in these volumes, except for the student who sees how they fit into the development of the English people; but for such a one the labor of reading becomes the source of keen intellectual enjoyment. According to our author, there are seven classes of important economic events which make their appearance during the one hundred and twenty years covered by his investigation; and we may perhaps most perfectly get at the spirit and aim of his work if we notice these events one after the other as he himself has presented them.

The first and most obvious of the events in question is the effect which the influx of the precious metals from the New World had on prices. There is no period, says our author, which throws more light on the general theory of prices than the one considered in these volumes. To a certain extent this is true of all Europe, but England shows in a peculiar manner the relation existing between industries and an increasing circulating medium; for it must be remembered that she possessed no gold-bearing colonies, and was in consequence obliged to secure her quota of gold and silver by means of trade with other countries. It was through the avenue of trade, and not by direct importation, that money came into England; and it was through trade, also, and not (as in the case of Spain) by means of military disbursements, that the money imported was put into circulation. On this account England presents an especially fruitful field for the study of the influence of money on industries.

There is, in this connection, also another fact of interest to the economist, which, though not stated by our author, is yet illustrated by the figures he presents. The student of history finds it necessary to explain why England in the seventeenth century developed her industries more rapidly than any other of the nations of Europe. There are, of course, many causes which worked in this direction, but one factor of great importance seems to have been overlooked. As we have said, England had no gold-bearing colonies. This was the occasion of regret on the part of the English people, and for the time it did place them at a disadvantage when compared with Spain. And yet this fact, so deeply deplored, was more potent in the development of England's commercial greatness than any other one fact which may be mentioned. Since England could not obtain the precious metals directly, she was obliged to obtain them indirectly by building up her home industries. But this is not the most significant feature of the situation. During the seventeenth century English merchants had a continual incentive to extend their operations. The market in which their goods were sold was directly influenced by the gold imported from the mines; while the home market in which their goods were bought could only be affected by the gold which the merchants brought home as the result of successful trade. On this account, prices on the English market were always a step behind prices on the markets of Europe where English goods were taken. There was thus an incentive offered for the constant expansion of commerce and industry.

The second fact of interest to industrial history pertains to the rise of rents on arable land. It will be remembered that, by the middle of the sixteenth century, customary rentals of feudal times had ceased to exert a control-

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ling influence; and our author tells us that "very early in the seventeenth century the rent of arable land had generally increased nine-fold over the old rent, and in many cases even twenty-five fold over customary rent at an earlier period." This remarkable rise in rent is traceable to two causes. The rise in the price of agricultural produce permitted farmers to pay higher money rents, while the general improvement in methods of farming made it possible for them to give a larger proportion of their produce to the landlords. It was not, however, till the eighteenth century that agricultural improvements exerted a decided and independent influence on rentals. But we are not on this account to conclude that agriculture in the seventeenth century was at a low stage. From the accounts given of it by contemporary writers, we learn that it was varied and productive. The principal authorities upon which Professor Rogers relies for information respecting agriculture are Norden, Markham, Vaughn, Platts, Hartlib, and Worlidge. We are a little surprised that he makes no mention of 'Best's Farming Book,' published by the Surtees Society, which is a most interesting account of rural economy in Yorkshire in 1641. It certainly contains some facts which our author has not revealed, though perhaps none necessary to the end which he has in view.

We cannot speak in detail of all the points brought out in these volumes which are pertinent to the development of English industrial society, and will therefore content ourselves with mentioning the next four without comment. Population increased rapidly despite the epidemics which ravaged the towns. The maritime adventures, which at first were but "little above the level of piracy," developed into a well-regulated system of trade and commerce. Another interesting feature of this period is found in the mass of social legislation which a class government imposed upon the people of England. "Many of the consequences which are derived from this legislation," says Professor Rogers, "influence English social and economical life at the present time, and are inducing economical problems upon us of no common greatness and difficulty. The seventeenth century is the beginning of modern economical history." The development of the joint-stock principle in commerce and manufactures is regarded as of sufficient importance to warrant special mention. Among the most successful of the institutions established is the Bank of England, which, it is asserted, gave steadiness to the machinery of representative government from the day of its organization.

But our chief interest in a treatise upon industrial history must centre in the new facts which it discloses respecting the labor problem. We cannot, of course, go very far in presenting the figures which show the movements in wages of laborers and the cost of living in the seventeenth century, but we can state in a word the conclusions of the author. The great economical fact to which he calls our attention is "the success of the conspiracy, baffled for more than two centuries, against English laborers. This is indeed," he remarks, "the saddest part of the retrospect. I have attempted in an earlier volume, as in this, to narrate, not without indignation perhaps, but with no conscious unfairness, the early history of the strife between employers and workmen, and the commencement of that crisis in the struggle during which the laborer was hopelessly beaten." The conspiracy to which Professor Rogers refers consists in that legislation by which it was endeavored to curtail the freedom of the English workman, while professing at the same time to guarantee him physical support. He refers to the Elizabethan Labor Code, to the Poor Law passed as a complement to the Labor Code, and to the Act of Settlement. The first of these laws gave to the justices of the peace the right of fixing wages and of punishing deviations from the wages fixed; the Poor Law authorized enforced labor; while the settlement acts prohibited a workman from going out of his own parish in search of work. Now, during the period we are considering, it would have been difficult under the most favorable legal conditions for the workingmen to have made headway against the increased cost of living. Prices had risen seven-fold. The average price of wheat from 1260 to 1542 was 5s. 11¼d. per quarter; the average price in the seventeenth century was 41s. per quarter. But when, in addition to the burden of rapidly rising prices, the law gave to members of the employing class the right to prohibit migrations from a certain parish, to force men to work under threat of legal punishment, and to fix legal wages, the condition of the laborers became utterly hopeless. Whatever may have been the intention of those who framed these laws, it must be admitted that they entailed evils as great as would have been entailed by a deliberate conspiracy against laborers.

It is in connection with this discussion that Professor Rogers pays a loving tribute to John Stuart Mill, while at the same time criticising his method of approach to economic questions. And so clearly does he put the point at issue between those who hold to the philosophic and those who have adopted the historical method of investigating industrial problems, that we cannot refrain from quoting this paragraph in full:

"I know of no person whose friendship I valued more than that of Mill. I greatly respected his candor; I admired his translucent utterances. No man ever gave one a clearer conception of what he meant at the moment. He was so earnest and so convinced, so gentle and so modest, that for a time one felt that he must be right. But few writers, I am sure, have been so much in the wrong, and few writers have done so much mischief as he. The evil came from want of knowledge. His estimate of economic causes was entirely autobiographical. He mistook his own impressions of the social state for the causes which had brought them about. He believed (for he told me so, and he never said what he did not believe) that every moral gift and every intellectual power could be imparted by education. The beggary, the misery, the improvidence, the recklessness of the English laborer were in his mind due to immediately preventable causes. Had he studied economical history, and given their due weight to that vast series of causes which made the English peasant what he is, I am convinced that his indignation would have been directed against other agencies than those which he collected and criticised. But, unfortunately, he wrote on social conditions without a preparatory training, even in those facts which had been published."

We cannot bring our notice of this work to a close without tendering to Professor Rogers our congratulations for the new honor which the University of Oxford has conferred upon him, in electing him to the chair of political economy left vacant by the death of Professor Bonamy Price.

## EDUCATION.

*Industrial Instruction.* By Robert Seidel. Translated by Margaret K. Smith. 12mo, pp. 160. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1887.

*Education of Man.* By Friedrich Froebel. Translated by W. N. Hailmann. 12mo, pp. 332. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

*The Ruling Principle of Method Applied to Education.* By Antonio Rosmini Serbati. Translated by Mrs. William Grey. 12mo, pp. 363. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1887.

*The Elements of Psychology.* By David J. Hill, LL.D. 12mo, pp. 419. New York: Sheldon & Co. 1888.

THE catalogue of the "Industrial Education Association" in New York city, apparently showing an attendance of 686 students, furnishes an opportunity to point out a significant tendency in modern education. A great development of industrial life has taken the place of that which characterized mediæval civilization, and the immense growth of the world's population has modified the ratio between population and the means for subsistence. These facts, or the forces which they set free, are revolutionizing our educational system. Time was when the pure sciences were the chief pabulum of instruction. But experience shows them to be unproductive, and the chief want of the present, with its developed industries, depending as much upon manual as upon mental skill, is a training that will be practical. The several books under notice represent the various stages of development towards this view. We begin with the one which exclusively concerns the industrial.

Seidel has the courage to predict that "the future in the state, as well as in pedagogy, belongs to labor." Socialists may welcome this view, but it is further off from realization than enthusiasts imagine, important as the author's position may be. He is thoroughly *en rapport* with the new tendencies, and has no purely ideal ends to defend. It is interesting and important to notice his point of departure, as it shows why education cannot proceed entirely in the old grooves. He points out the futility of that system of industrial education which was designed to protect the small trades, because it was clear that the larger and machine industries were certain to supplant the others; and hence industrial education, if it is to be given at all, must be in the channels which present economical conditions lay down for us. Now, the influence exerted by industry upon a large scale is simply an actual fact, which has to be met and reckoned with. It changes old conditions, and necessitates, therefore, a change of method to meet the exigencies thus created. Education has to be extended from the liberal to the practical.

Seidel's work marks the extreme tendency of which we speak, although it was not written to defend such a position against the claims of speculative studies. Froebel's is a step removed from this, and, although aiming at practical methods, is more in sympathy with the intellectual aims of past ages. It rather shows the theory which characterizes the mental transition from the intellectual to the industrial. It is conceived in opposition to the views of Pestalozzi—at least apparently, although examination shows it in reality the same. Pestalozzi based his views of education upon the mere idea of knowledge; Froebel upon that of self-activity and the realization of personal aims. Here he might have shown his sympathy with manual employments, with a system of education having social and practical bearings. But no. All the self-activity which he has in mind is born of Hegelianism, and means, in the last analysis, that the individual child or man should be trained to realize in himself "the treasures of science—the wisdom of the race." This is only to return to the position from which he started. The method which he proposes is admirable, and may be called a scientific foundation of his kindergarten system. It is, to limit the matter of instruction to the character of experience and intelligence which receives

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it. In this way all dogmatic doctrines and creeds are reserved for maturity. Although, in many respects, mystical in the aims it would realize, and moulded in the spirit of a philosophy which is no longer in the ascendant, the work has most valuable suggestions for every instructor of the young. Its historical value is considerable, but it can be only transitional in its influence.

Rosmini's work is more practical. It endeavors to develop methods more than ends, and this single fact brings him into closer contact with modern life. It is another step of removal from the view proposing purely intellectual ends in education, although there is no advocacy of anything like industrial training, except in the most general way. Rosmini was a contemporary of Froebel, but worked out his system in entire independence of that author. There are many points of resemblance between their methods, but one of essential difference between them which accrues to the favor of Froebel, in spite of his mysticism. Rosmini was a Roman priest, and his work was sanctioned by his Church; Froebel was a product of Protestant theology and philosophy. This fact marks the essential difference between their views in regard to the matter of what they would teach children, especially in religion. "Rosmini, as could not be otherwise, based the practical religious education of the child on instruction in the dogmas and formularies of the Church. Froebel, on the other hand, with a consistency impossible to his great contemporary, refused to depart in religious instruction from the fundamental principle of both, that children should never learn words representing ideas which their minds were incapable of conceiving." This is important to notice because it clearly defines a movement in modern thought of which even its own advocates do not realize the tendencies and consequences. That Rosmini did not remark it while consciously developing his system, can only be explained by the intellectual and political power of Papacy, which could so determine and control a man's opinions that they were very little exposed to revision. Certainly he did not realize that his whole method undermined that of instruction by authority. He would begin the child's education by using the simplest concrete objects to interest curiosity and to employ the child's own experience for producing ideas and conviction, and then proceed to the more intellectual and complex conceptions of knowledge as the child's own spontaneous development demands. This is the whole of his method in a nutshell, and it is unquestionably the correct one. But it involves a revolution in educational methods and matter of which few are aware. Of course, it is almost universally adopted in the schools, but not as a method of domestic education. When it is adopted everywhere, its effects will be seen. The book shows the influence of psychology in determining all methods of pedagogy, and moves towards the practical spirit of modern times in that it has no speculative problems to solve, and no special intellectual ends like those of philosophy to condition the mode of education it defends.

The last book under our notice, although a treatise on psychology, is of that kind which belongs to pedagogical work rather than to scientific and philosophic study. It has no merit whatever as science or philosophy. The manner in which it was written precluded all this. It is a kind of encyclopædia in little of all questions in speculation; and such a compilation of opinions and quotations, with the most astonishing prolixity of analysis, has seldom been offered to educators. The attempt is to bring the student into contact with all the problems of science, philosophy, and religion within the compass of a few hundred pages, as if he would never meet with another opportunity to reflect upon them. From such a book the student can arise with no other conception than that he has seen a great many things. There are no less than 223 quotations and references in 373 pages of print, nearly all of them quotations. The book states the views of, and quotes from, 140 different philosophers, and mentions about 30 others for the purposes of illustration. The analysis represents 460 different topics, besides general headings. It will be evident from this that the work violates every principle of rational education which provides for mental discipline and the mastery of a few fundamental principles for guides in later development. Moreover, the smattering given often relates to subjects which do not need to be approached by the student at all. For instance, what do we want to do with scholastic discussions of "Nominalism," "Realism," and "Conceptualism" in high schools, where this book will be used, and where, perhaps, the subject ought not to be taught? So also with "Monism," "Pantheism," etc. It would be better to omit psychology entirely than to teach it in this way. The work is hardly out of scholastic methods, and, both in respect to this and to its matter, it is the furthest remove from the practical tendency we have noted of all the books under our consideration. It is much more suited for sale than for pedagogy, although no wide-awake teacher will be deceived by it.

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*The Campaign in Virginia, 1781.* An exact reprint of six rare pamphlets on the Clinton-Cornwallis controversy, with unpublished MS. notes by Sir Henry Clinton. Edited by Benjamin Franklin Stevens. London: Henry Stevens & Son. 1888. In 2 vols., 8vo.

THIS work is the most important contribution ever made on this particular part of our Revolutionary history, and the fullest elucidation ever made from the British side of any campaign in the same war. Five of these tracts have been known to students before; but the last of the series, not earlier recognized, is now added to them, as well as very numerous notes made by Clinton on the margins of all of them. These annotated copies were sold a few years since, when Clinton's library came upon the market in London, and were bought for the Department of State in Washington. The tracts gave the illustrative correspondence of the principal actors, but not in full, and all these letters (extended so as to be full transcripts of the originals, which were sought in their repositories) are now grouped together after the tracts. To these are added elucidatory extracts from the Lords' journals, the preface of the French version of some of the correspondence, and a list of about 3,500 other documents illustrating the relations of Clinton and Cornwallis at this time, with memoranda of their depositories and of the places where they are printed.

The new material consists mainly of the comments and corrections of Clinton, which are added to the texts; and the chief editorial function has been to collate the texts and these notes—for Clinton duplicated them several times—and mark the variations. This has been done with a precision almost unprecedented in similar work, and one has a feeling that the attending references are almost overdone, for it is not discoverable that any considerable part of this conscientious labor has really added to the scope of the work by placing many essential variations in conjunction. It will pass, however, for a sample of extreme caution and precision, which puts these two volumes at once into a category of editing almost unique in such material, and such as is usually confined to textual variation in philological matters where an importance clings to minute differences. Mr. Stevens in an introduction gives all necessary preparatory information; and he closes the book with an index equally minute, and which he makes also the vehicle of biographical information. The defect of the book as a monographic treatment of the campaign is the unavoidable one of the absence of all later corresponding comment by Cornwallis, so that Clinton has an unfair advantage in stating his case.

Such is the book as a contribution to historical literature; but most American historical scholars will regard it as an earnest of the kind of labor to be expected upon the work of indexing or printing the mass of European documents, illustrating our history from 1763 to 1783, and especially elucidating the Peace of Paris, which Mr. Stevens has been for many years collecting from the private and public European archives, and which he has been asking the American Government for several years past to accept at a price and to publish. If the present book is a fair sample of the editorial care which has been bestowed upon this other garnered material—and one would judge it to be necessarily so—the historical scholar may feel satisfied that the larger work will be edited by Mr. Stevens with a precision that will answer, and perhaps more than answer, any historical inquirer. Painstaking in this way is costly, however, and may perhaps swell the charge to an extent that will block the hoped-for undertaking. It is a question if in non-essentials it is worth while to pursue such a minute collation, although the method is probably the best way of establishing a conviction of trustworthiness. The student would certainly rather have the papers with reasonable precision than fail because of such a burden of nicety to get them at all. It seems a pity that so much material as Mr. Stevens has gathered should not in some way be made available to our historical workers, and that with expedition.

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*Strongbow's Conquest of Ireland, 1166-1188.* By Francis P. Barnard, M.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

WE have already made mention of this admirable little book in connection with the series of primers called "English History from Contemporary Writers." In it are brought together translations of all the main extracts from contemporary or supposed contemporary writers or annalists, British and Irish, relating to Strongbow's invasion of Ireland; and we find appendices—the descendants of Nesta, list of the adventurers who joined Strongbow, the Irish and Norse chieftains who appear during the war, notes on the life of Giraldus, and other information—invaluable to the students. We regret that, as in some other books of a like character lately published, the illustrations do not come up to the letterpress. Where so much care and expense has otherwise been gone to to produce a standard educational work, it is shortsighted policy not to spend a few more dollars upon the woodcuts.

We have seldom had brought before us with more painful vividness the incidents of the Anglo-Norman *invasion* of Ireland (conquest there was not for 400 years later). We see in all their nakedness the rapacity of the invaders, the weakness and divisions of the natives,

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duplicity and faithlessness on both sides. We are told by one of the English chroniclers on page 8: "In proportion as the realm [of Ireland] was [had been] free from external aggression, so much the more miserably were the natives commonly engaged in tearing the bowels of their fatherland by their intestine feuds." Whatever may have been the glories of Ireland in previous times, this was undoubtedly true regarding the condition of the country in 1169. Had Strongbow and his followers brought about a settled state of things, had they laid the foundations of a well-ordered state, none would have more cause to bless them than Irishmen of the present day. As it was, they but added to the confusion and unsettlement; they were actuated by principles and methods carried on to the present day; they would neither rule wisely and well nor let the Irish themselves evolve a settled government. We trust no one will read the book without looking over the preface, in which full allowance is sought for the extravagances, "sometimes sheer buffoonery," "credulity," "malignity," and other faults of Giraldus Cambrensis, whose writings are principally drawn upon. The extent to which the invasion was a family affair can only be understood by study of the table of the descendants of the Princess Nesta, which is perhaps as correct and as carefully compiled as another list of her descendants we have seen.

### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F., and Rolfe, W. J. Atalanta's Race, and Other Tales from Morris's Earthly Paradise. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 75 cents.
Alden's Manifold Cyclopædia of Knowledge and Language. Vol. II. America to Artemis. John B. Alden. 40 cents.
Arnold, M. Civilization in the United States. First and Last Impressions of America. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Bardeen, C. W. Question Book of Book-Keeping. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Bridgman, R. L. Ten Years of Massachusetts. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Briggs, R. Steam Heating: An Exposition of the American Practice of Warming Buildings by Steam. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Brooks, E. S. The Story of New York. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.
Brown, Charles Brockden. Ormond.—Edgar Huntly.—Arthur Mervyn, 2 vols.—Jane Talbot.—Wieland. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. I. Pauline—Sordello. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Chapman, Elizabeth R. A Companion to In Memoriam. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Charnay, D. Une Princesse Indienne avant la conquête. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Clark—Giddings. The Modern Distributive Process. Studies of Competition and its Limits, of the Nature and Amount of Profits, and of the Determination of Wages, in the Industrial Society of To-day. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Cossa, Prof. L. Taxation: its Principles and Methods. Introduction and Notes by Horace White. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Davies, Rev. E. Illustrated Handbook on Africa. Reading, Mass.: Holiness Book Concern. 25 cents.
Deland, Margaret. John Ward, Preacher. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Dowden, E. Correspondence of Henry Taylor. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.80.
Encyclopædia Britannica. 9th ed. Vol. 23. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Ewing, Gen. H. A Castle in the Air. Henry Holt & Co. $1.00.
Falloux, Comte de. Mémoires d'un Royaliste. T. I., II. Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Foster, D. S. Rebecca the Witch, and Other Tales in Metre. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Foster, Prof. F. H. The Seminary Method of Original Study in the Historical Sciences. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.00.
Frye, A. E. The Child and Nature; or Geography Teaching with Sand Modelling. Hyde Park, Mass.: Bay State Publishing Co.
George, A. J. Wordsworth's Prelude. With Notes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Goddard, F. B. Furniture and the Art of Furnishing. The Tradesman's Publishing Co. 20 cents.
Goddard, F. B. Grocer's Goods: A Family Guide. The Tradesman's Publishing Co. 20 cents.
Goddard, F. B. Marketing. Guide to the Purchase of Meats, Poultry, Game, Fish, Vegetables, Fruits, &c. The Tradesman's Publishing Co. 20 cents.
Gossip, G. H. D. The Chess-Player's Manual. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $3.
Guizot, M. et Mme. Le Temps passé: Mélanges de Critique littéraire et de Morale. 2 vols. Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Hale, Lucretia P., and Bynner, E. L. An Uncloseted Skeleton. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Hendrick, W. "The Table is Set:" A Comedy in One Act. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 15 cents.
Henry, E. Eighty-nine. Cassell & Co. $1.25.
Hitchcock, Rev. R. D. Eternal Atonement. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Hotchkiss, P. P. Banks and Banking, 1171-1888. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Hodge, Rev. A. A. and Rev. J. A. The System of Theology contained in the Westminster Shorter Catechism Opened and Explained. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.
Humphrey, Rev. E. P. Sacred History from the Creation to the Giving of the Law. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.50.
Irving, J. T. Indian Sketches (1833). G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Jones, C. C., jr. Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast, told in the Vernacular. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Knight, G. W. History and Management of Land Grants for Education in the Northwest Territory. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Kurtz, C. M. National Academy Notes. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Larousse. Grand dictionnaire universel, 2e Supplément, fasc. 12-15. Boston: Schoenhof.
Leeds, H. C. and Dwight, J. The Laws of Euchre. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Lorenz. Catalogue général de la Librairie française. T. X, fasc. 2. Boston: Schoenhof.
Manners: a Handbook of Social Customs. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.

# Fine Arts.

## SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.—II.

"TULIP CULTURE," No. 71, by George Hitchcock, is a picture which attracted a great deal of attention at the Salon of 1887, and the estimation in which it was held by artists in Paris is shown by the fact that the Salon jury awarded it a *mention honorable*. It is one of those pictures which please artists and laymen alike, for to the former it appeals by its frank and honest painting and its excellent qualities of light and air, while the latter are moved to admiration by the novel character of the subject, and find pleasure in looking at a picture in which nature seems so faithfully portrayed. It is a charming picture, of which it is sufficient to say here that it is thoroughly good work, and that in it Mr. Hitchcock has been eminently successful in accomplishing a task of considerable difficulty in the management of color. It is unfortunate that it is placed in one corner of the gallery, when it would have appeared to so much better advantage in the middle of the room, in the fullest light it would be possible to get on the canvas.

Such a place is happily given to the large picture "In Summer," No. 4, by Frank W. Benson. This, too, is an out-of-doors subject, a portrait of a young lady in a white dress, who is seen sitting in the shade on a lawn, which in the middle distance is flooded with sunlight, and extends to a background of trees, and houses, and garden walls beyond. It is very simply painted—too simply at times, for it amounts to positive thinness in certain passages—but it is a remarkably faithful study of values, it is clean and fresh in color, and very good in ensemble. It is to be especially noted as the work of a young Boston artist who has not exhibited before in New York, and who may be safely set down as a painter of whom much may be expected.

Something of value in painting of the nude is generally to be seen at the Society exhibitions, and this year is no exception to the rule. Besides Mr. Kenyon Cox's "Indian Summer," which has been mentioned in another article, here are a charming full-length figure of a young girl, "'Neath Apple Boughs," No. 82, by Will H. Low, a refined and delicate piece of work; another in a half-recumbent pose, "Offering to Aphrodite," No. 39, by Herbert Denman, a well-drawn and agreeably colored female figure painted with much nicety of observation and placed in a well-balanced composition; and a small picture, with a figure of a woman reclining, and a landscape setting, "Ariadne," No. 50, by Wyatt Eaton, which, without having the distinctness of line and fresh quality of color which characterize the first-named works, has an individuality of its own, and is especially to be commended for excellent painting of the flesh in shadow. With these should be mentioned the half-nude figure, "Chloë," No. 128, by Henry O. Walker, in which the luminous tones of the flesh are well contrasted with the white drapery which partly envelops the figure, and a quiet scheme of color is well sustained throughout.

Mr. Maynard's majestic figure, "Civilization," No. 84, which occupies the centre of one of the end walls of the gallery, effective in its well-managed arrangement of white in the drapery and reddish tones in the marble wall, and Mr. Dewing's "Allegorical Figure," No. 41, dignified in style and painted in a harmony of greens and pale grays, are decorative works of distinctive character and individual merit. Mr. Tiffany's rather commonplace arrangement of reds and blues in the large decoration "In Memoriam," No. 113, and Mr. Low's design for a window, "Madonna della Pratellini," No. 81, a conventional composition, but of decided charm of quiet color, are two other works of the same class, and perhaps with these may fittingly be mentioned Mr. Blashfield's excellent "Interior of St. Mark's, Venice," No. 6, a finely colored canvas, and, as a study, remarkable for truth of observation.

"A Milkmaid," No. 80, by Chester Loomis, is a picture of a Normandy peasant girl riding on a donkey with large metal milk cans slung over his back on each side of her, and is noticeable for clever painting and truth of local color. The figure is charming, and the landscape, with its foreground of grass and herbage and its luminous sky with white clouds, is broadly and sufficiently painted. "Finding a Pose," No. 130, by J. Louis Webb, is a studio interior with two figures, those of the painter seated in the foreground, and the model, a girl in Greek costume of white, who essays a pose at the further end of the room, where some marble busts, a pair of steps, palms and garlands, and other accessories are arranged. The painting of stuffs is notably good, and the picture as a whole has its greatest merit in its appearance of atmosphere and in the rendering of values. It is, moreover, well composed, and escapes the commonplace in the treatment of a somewhat trite subject. Mr. Shirlaw exhibits two pictures, one, "The Sketch Book," No. 105, a small three-quarter-length figure of a young woman with a book in her hands, which is remarkable for mellowness of tone such as distinguishes some of the old Dutch works; the other, "Westward," No. 106, which is a landscape composition with a traveller's wagon and figures of men and horses in the foreground, treated, like the first, rather for the effect of tone than for absolute reality.

In landscape there is, as usual, an excellent showing. Mr. Tryon is seen at his best in a small picture, "December in Connecticut," No. 117, in which a stretch of country, with hills and clumps of trees and stone fences, lying under a wintry sky, is painted in subdued color; and he is further represented by a large work, possessing the charm of a twilight effect, with the fading glow of the setting sun, whose last rays gild the tops of some houses on a hill in the middle distance, "October Evening," No. 115, and by an effective and finely toned "Moonrise," No. 116. "Late Afternoon at Wakefield, R. I.," No. 125, by R. W. Van Boskerck, an effect of sunlight on a meadow, with haystacks in the distance, is realistic in effect without being forced, and is a soundly painted landscape. "Windmills," No. 118, by John H. Twachtman, is a picture, presumably of a Dutch motive, in which there are excellent qualities of line in the drawing of the ground, and the sky is luminous and delicate in color, although the ensemble gives rather the effect of

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a decoration in flat tones than that of the enveloping quality of atmosphere. Mr. Twachtman exhibits other landscape studies also, one of which in particular, "Church at Arques," No. 124, is a charming bit of delicate color and is full of light and air. "Evening," No. 75, by H. Bolton Jones, a small picture of a winter landscape, tender in color and delightful in sentiment; "Foggy Day on the Sands," No. 74, by Francis C. Jones, a delicately toned and truthfully observed effect of misty atmosphere; "Landscape," No. 46, by C. H. Eaton, a handsome composition, with large masses of dark foliage and effective notes of color; "Landscape—Cape Ann," No. 92, by Charles A. Platt, a cleverly painted piece of plain and sky, with floating clouds; "Late Afternoon," No. 31, by Bruce Crane; "November Gloom," No. 87, by J. Francis Murphy; "The Red Oak," No. 90, by Walter Palmer; and "Spring," No. 61, by Edward Gay—are all works by well-known painters of landscape. With these are pictures deserving of mention by Butler Harrison, R. A. Eichelberger, C. W. Eaton, F. W. Kost, Charles Melville Dewey, K. I. Langdon, Arthur Hoeber, and Stanley Middleton. "Moonlight," No. 7, by George H. Bogert, is good in effect and excellent in tone. "Evening in Fontainebleau Forest," No. 57, by Ben Foster, is a wood interior, with a sunset sky seen through the trees, which, in spite of being somewhat blackish in tone, is atmospheric and complete in general effect. "Moorland—Cape Ann," No. 38, by Joseph De Camp, is a strongly painted effect of sunlight on rocky ground near the sea-coast, which is exceedingly realistic, but is without much quality of color. "In the Fields," No. 55, by B. R. Fitz, is a landscape with some figures of peasant women at work, painted with especial regard to securing an impression of atmosphere, which is given somewhat at the expense of the look of reality to be obtained by the rendering of exact values and color notes of out-of-door effects. Mr. Wiggins, in "Early Evening Among the Sand Dunes," No. 135, shows a group of cattle standing in the broad shadow of a hill behind which the sun has set, and Mr. Thomas Allen in "Thoroughbreds," No. 1, has painted the heads of four Jersey calves, with a background of green foliage, in his usual clever manner.

One of the *clous* of the exhibition, and certainly one of the best pictures that have ever been sent to New York by an American artist abroad, is "Bay of St. Ives at Evening," No. 107. The painter of this picture, Mr. Edward E. Simmons, has been best known by his figure subjects, and as a painter of Brittany fisher folk has been favorably noticed in Paris and at home for a number of years. Like Mr. Alexander Harrison, whose reputation was first made in like manner, but who is perhaps best known in America as the painter of that beautiful picture of moonrise on the sea, "La Crépuscule," Mr. Simmons has ventured out of the beaten track, and has set for himself a simpler but in some ways a more difficult task in essaying to paint an effect of early evening light on sea and shore with no element of interest outside of what may be found in the placid calm of nature. The composition of the "Bay of St. Ives" consists of a wide expanse of the waters of the bay in the foreground, stretching away to a tongue of land which juts out from the right at the high horizon line near the top of the picture, and a strip of sky above with low-lying clouds, through which the rising moon is peeping. It is neither too late for the sun's light to be entirely lost in the shadows of night, nor is it too early for the moon's rays to gild the edge of the clouds with silvery brightness. The effect is that of the pale violet hues of the long summer twilight. In his treatment of this simple but poetic motive, Mr. Simmons has brought to bear all the resources of his art, and his picture is as truthful as it is artistic. It is a beautiful work, and such as cannot be well described in words. Its full charm can only be felt when one has seen it, and will prove most lasting when one has seen it again and again.


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